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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

EDUCATION IS NOT A DESTINATION . . .
IT IS A JOURNEY . . . ALWAYS, WE ARE EN ROUTE



Miles

*M*OST OF THE largest cities in the U. S. are located on rivers because these winding streams are transportation routes. About twenty years before the Civil War, Mississippi steamboating was at its height. Later, when railroad builders wanted to put a bridge across the Mississippi, the rivermen objected. There were quarrels; barges and floating logs rammed into and destroyed bridge supports. An attorney, Abraham Lincoln, helped progress to win when he said that land vehicles traveling east and west had rights as well as water vehicles traveling north and south. The Iron Horse gained permission to puff *above* the steamboat.

Every new form of transportation supplements the older ones and does what is impossible for its prede-



Minutes

cessors. Today, a three-dimensional vehicle, the transport plane, travels *above* all forms of two-dimensional surface transportation.

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Notice

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There have been some sporadic attempts initiated by many groups outside the organized professional groups in education to enroll youth of the secondary schools in some form of organization.

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the national professional education organization for secondary schools, has the firm conviction that any such youth organization ought to remain under the direction of secondary-school administrators and in secondary schools.

THEREFORE, your Association is giving direction to the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF STUDENT COUNCILS. We are inviting your school to membership. We offer aid to your school Student Council in its full realization of its function in the democratic administration of your school.

If your Student Council is not a member of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF STUDENT COUNCILS, fill in the application blank on the opposite side of this page.

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Enroll now and membership will be paid up until June 30, 1945.

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*Monthly copies of *Student Life* will be sent the Student Council of the school and the faculty Sponsor of Student Council, as listed above, until June 30, 1945. **ENROLL NOW.**

Date _____ Principal _____

General Education in the Secondary School Now and After the War*

PAUL B. JACOBSON

Superintendent of Schools, Davenport, Iowa

MANY GOOD THINGS can be said about the schools and their contribution to the war. The average soldier has nearly four years more training than his father had a quarter century ago. In the first World War only twenty per cent had gone beyond the eighth grade; today sixty-seven per cent have done so. Thirty-nine per cent of today's Army have been graduated from high school; in the first World War, only four per cent were high-school graduates. There is evidence, too, that those who have the benefit of secondary-school attendance, especially the graduates, are better soldiers than those who have not. The training of the men in uniform received before they entered the Service is the greatest single contribution to the war made by the schools of the nation.

Second only to the contribution to the Armed Forces has been the contribution made by the schools to our vast production of the materials needed by our Armies and those of our Allies. Hundreds of thousands of men and women received the basic training which enabled them to fit into our industrial machine as it shifted into high gear. And millions more were given refresher or single-skill courses which enabled them to fit into war production.

Certain changes are now operative which can, and, in individual schools at least, will further improve general education in the postwar world. First among these is the fairly general inclusion of work in the total educational experience of millions of boys and girls. The plea for work experience as part of education, which first gained a thoughtful hearing by school administrators during the 1930's, has been heeded. Partly because of necessity, and in larger part because of the conviction of adults, a planned program of school and work is enriching the lives of millions of teen-age boys and girls. Summer farm employment, day haul or home placement, work camps, school terms planned to allow work vacations during peak seasons, four hours of school and four hours of work in urban communities—to mention only a few—are flourishing. The literature of school administration carries analyses which indicate that supervision is being, or soon will be, furnished; that criteria are being developed; that credit is being considered; and that administrative organizations and personnel are being set up. *Work experience*¹ artic-

*A paper delivered to one of the sectional meetings of the American Association of School Administrators in Chicago on February 29, 1944.

¹"Learning to Work" *School and Manpower*, Twenty-first Yearbook, Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1943, chap. 2, pp. 32-63.

ulated with school attendance shows every indication of becoming a part of school organization. If it is made part of the general education program during the war years, it will persist in the postwar years.

"Every boy must be physically fit to fight and live," has become a slogan for both boys and girls in forward looking schools. Emphasis on improving one's individual performance rather than merely trying to surpass others in physical skill is a hopeful sign. Some emphasis on body-building exercises rather than complete reliance on free play—and that sometimes haphazard—is a wholesome sign. Emphasis on health and physical education and a general toning up of the offering in this area is apparent. We should note carefully, however, that this problem has not been solved; beginnings only have been made. Let us take care that these gains are consolidated and extended in the postwar secondary school.

The impact of pre-induction courses has been felt in the secondary school. The activities of the United States Office of Education, its co-operation with the Civilian Pre-Induction Training Branch of the War Department, and their co-operative publications in *Education for Victory* prepared or endorsed by committees from such representative bodies as the National Council for Teachers of English and the National Council for Social Studies, have begun to bear fruit.

Refresher courses in reading and in simple mathematical calculations, increased emphasis on the abilities of writing clearly and of speaking effectively have reduced formalism and have brought reality to many classrooms. Such "stock taking" caused by the needs of pre-induction is an educational good which must not be allowed to disappear after the war.

DEMONSTRATED COMPETENCE A SELECTOR

Educational placement on the basis of demonstrated competence rather than time spent in school has made its appearance on the educational scene. First pronounced by the advisory committee of the United States Armed Forces Institute, the idea of placing young adults at their level of competence demonstrated through tests prepared by the Armed Forces Institute has been endorsed by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the American Council on Education. It has been broadcast by most of the regional accrediting agencies in the United States. There is a very strong probability that any young man or woman who has been denied the opportunity of regular school attendance can demonstrate his competence and may begin his educational career as a high-school junior or senior or as a college freshman or sophomore irrespective of his former placement in school. There has come to the author's attention the case of a twenty-eight year old Army Lieutenant who had completed only the eighth grade. On the test of General Educational Development prepared by the Armed Forces Institute examination staff he has demonstrated that he had a competence in five subject-matter areas, equi-

valent to the ninety percentile of achievement of the high-school seniors in 900 high schools on whom the test was standardized in the spring of 1943. Certainly if the high school in his home community is unwilling to grant this young Lieutenant a diploma he will be welcomed, if he survives the war and desires to enter a higher institution, by the best universities in our country.

Educational placement on the basis of demonstrated competence eliminates forever the lockstep of progression by time spent in a secondary school and makes it possible for able persons who could not or did not attend school with their age mates to take their rightful place in the educational scene.

The necessity of advising the individual student to choose wisely the proper arm of the Services or to seek his most effective place in industry has enhanced the guidance function and has provided both increased emphasis and additional personnel. This gain, too, must be kept after the war.

THE SELECTIVE CHARACTER OF EDUCATION

The 1940 census shows that 83.9 per cent of the persons fourteen years of age, 80.8 per cent of those fifteen years of age, 69.9 per cent of those sixteen years of age, and 55.7 per cent of those seventeen years of age in the population were attending school.² Only one fourth of those eighteen and nineteen years of age were in any sort of educational institutions; most of these were properly enrolled in colleges and universities. All of us know that the percentages enrolled in 1944 are even lower because high-school enrollments decreased from five to eight per cent each of the last two years.

None of us would claim that all young people fourteen to seventeen years of age should be in secondary schools. A few potential intellectual leaders have been graduated and have gone to college. A few others are so stupid they should be in custodial institutions rather than in the public schools. A small percentage, due to poor environment or inadequate parental direction, are confined to corrective or penal institutions. Some have been driven from the schools by a curriculum which does not make sense to an adolescent or by teachers who had no understanding of problems of young people. Others do not attend because they live in such inaccessible places that the high school can not be reached. But the great majority of those fourteen to seventeen years of age who were not in school—27.5 per cent of the total age group—were absent because they could not afford to attend.

For over twenty years, since Counts published his pioneer investigation on the *Selective Character of American Secondary Education*, we have known that youth from families in comfortable or financially secure families persisted in school more generally than those from the lower economic groups. One sentence must suffice: "It appears that the chances that the child of a

²U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940*. Population, Series P-4, No. 8, Washington, D. C. Superintendent of Documents, 1941, p. 12.

rather engaged in one of the professional pursuits will reach the senior year of the high school are sixty-nine times as great as those of the child whose father is a common laborer."⁸ Ten years later Counts' study was repeated as part of the National Survey of Secondary Education in two cities. In both of them there had been tremendous increases in the totals enrolled. In one city there was evidence that the high school enrolled a slightly larger percentage of the youth from the lower income groups than had been the case a decade earlier.⁴ In the second city the evidence indicated that the schools were less democratic or more selective as the lower groups had not kept pace with their more fortunate peers.⁵

Bell, in the Maryland Youth Study, reached a conclusion which is not surprising: "... the strongest single factor in determining how far a youth goes in school is the occupation of his father."⁶ It is not surprising that fifty-four per cent of the out-of-school youth in Maryland gave economic reasons for dropping out of school.⁷ No wonder Bell stated "It seems obvious that before the schools can effectively participate in any solution of the national youth problem opportunities for attending them [the schools] must be provided."⁸

The New York Regents Inquiry into the Cost and Character of Education echoes the same dismal refrain. "So severely handicapped are withdrawing pupils that almost one out of every two belongs to a family classified as poor or indigent; only one in twenty was reported to be living in comfortable or wealthy homes . . ."⁹ "... Within the schools of our democracy an aristocracy, not alone of aptitude, but also of economic privilege, still exists to perpetuate class barriers."¹⁰ And observation shows that the boys and girls who leave high schools today for war jobs are principally from the less favored economic groups in our society.¹¹

Immediately some will say public high schools are free, therefore, all can attend. A recent research study, indicative rather than conclusive, is pertinent. Over 19,000 students in 134 high schools in twenty-nine states,¹² kept records of their expenditures in fourteen categories. These data may be

⁸Counts, George S., *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education*. Supplementary Educational Monograph No. 19. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1922, p. 43.

⁴Kefauver, Grayson N., Noll, Victor H., and Drake, C. Ellwood. *The Secondary School Population*. U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 17, 1932. National Survey of Secondary Educations, Monograph No. 4. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1933, p. 14.

⁵*Ibid.*, p. 14.

⁶Bell, Howard M., *Youth Tell Their Story*, Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1938, p. 63.

⁷*Ibid.*, p. 64.

⁸*Ibid.*, p. 67.

⁹Eckert, Ruth E., and Marshall, T. O., *When Youth Leave School*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938, p. 72.

¹⁰*Ibid.*, p. 85.

¹¹The U. S. Office of Education estimates there were 546,000 fewer boys age 15 and over in school this year 1943-44 than the year before and 888,000 fewer than in 1939-40. *Education for Victory*, Vol. 2, No. 15, (Feb. 3, 1944), p. 21.

¹²Jacobson, Paul B., "The Cost of Attending High School," *Bulletin*, No. 119. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, (January, 1944), pp. 3-28, 65.

summarized as follows: average expenditures for all students \$81.96; average for boys \$73.74, average for girls \$87.66. Average expenditures for students in the ninth grade were \$62.96, for those in the tenth grade \$69.32, for those in the eleventh \$88.16, and those in twelfth \$109.14.¹³ There were also differences in the average expenditures made by youth from various occupational groups. For example, the youth of professional parents recorded expenditures of \$96.53 while the youth of operatives and kindred workers—railroad brakemen, share croppers, fishermen, bus drivers, factory laborers, and the like—reported average expenditures of \$71.43.¹⁴ There was also a gradual increase in expenditures as the size of the community increased from \$58.50 in communities of less than 1,000 population to \$103.50 in cities of over 100,000.

It may be argued, with reason, that total expenditures of \$82 are meaningless until they are broken down to indicate whether the individual expenditures are valid or excessive. The items in order of magnitude are clothing \$41.46 (46 per cent), lunches \$16.18 (18 per cent), miscellaneous \$9.98, transportation or carfare \$7.72, school supplies \$4.30, admission \$2.07. A series of smaller items make up the total. The largest single item is clothing ranging from \$29.49 for ninth-grade boys to \$62.13 for twelfth-grade girls. It may be contended, of course, that young people need clothes whether they attend school or not. But one knows that the cost of clothes considered suitable for school is greater than the cost of clothes which can be worn at home.

If the figure \$82 is accepted as the average expenditure made by 19,000 students attending high school in 1942-43, one begins to see why students from the lower economic groups drop out of school. For professional workers the expenditures of \$82 to pay the running expenses of a son or a daughter to high school is a matter which requires not even a second thought. But for the family with an annual income of \$2,000 or less—and that means half of the families—such an expenditure is a serious matter, particularly if there are two or more pupils to send to school for those families with annual incomes of \$1,000 or less—and this group included 32 per cent of the families in 1942¹⁵—such an expenditure is impossible. For want of the necessary cash money to attend school, those segments of society which are in most desperate need of the help which the school can give are forced to drop out. Thus the vicious cycle: family income determines to a great extent the grade attained; grade attained in school determines, broadly, the kind of work one will do; and this, in turn, determines income and the amount of schooling which will be available to the next generation.

WAYS TO EXTEND EDUCATION OPPORTUNITIES

There are several ways which might make education more generally

¹³*Ibid.*, p. 16

¹⁴*Ibid.*, p. 16

¹⁵Williams, Faith, *The American Standard of Living, Problems in American Life* No. 19. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, p. 20.

available. Higher family incomes would help, and, if we plan for full employment after the war, should alleviate the difficulty. But schoolmen alone can do little to raise family incomes.

Schools could and should furnish more free services. If athletic coaches are furnished, why should not admissions to athletic contests be free to students? Free lunches and free transportation would help; unfortunately this results in higher local costs for education which many communities cannot afford. Some form of Federal assistance to enable the individual to carry the cost or some form of Federal assistance to the schools to enable them to furnish the necessities is imperative. But unless the student has or can earn the money to buy the necessary clothing—the largest single expense—he will not stay in school. There are two kinds of aid to education: (1) aids to make general education better, particularly in those areas which now have the poorest schools; (2) aids which enable those who cannot now attend to enjoy the schools which are available. Both types of aid are necessary. Both should be sought. This article concentrates on the second because it has been far less generally sought and is probably more readily available.

During the war thousands of young people are working part-time while continuing to attend school. But even now in rural areas which have not been touched by war production, young people cannot earn the necessary money to stay in school decently. There will be thousands of such communities after the war. Every willing and able boy or girl has the right to earn the money necessary to stay in school and to reach that level of competence which his ability will allow, be it high-school or college graduation. Organized schoolmen have an obligation to see that such opportunities are provided. Now, this can be done locally in most communities; after the war Federal funds will be needed in thousands of communities.

In this nation of opportunity the author's grandfather, an immigrant from Norway, was allowed to build up a farmstead at practically no cost except his own energy and perseverance. A generous Federal government gave to the homesteaders—mostly young people—280,000,000 acres of land, an area equal in size to Illinois, Iowa, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Michigan, Indiana, Ohio, and Pennsylvania. Many of this present generation were indirect recipients of that bounty through inheritance or opportunity.

FEDERAL SUPPORT NECESSARY

Today the Federal government can give opportunity by making funds available so that young people can complete their secondary education and go on to college. The experience of the Army Service Training Program units in hundreds of colleges has demonstrated clearly that the underprivileged but able have responded remarkably. The Federal government will, the author believes, make the necessary funds available if those who understand the need

—the responsible school administrators of the United States—ask for it. The Federal government through its Congress has always been interested in the development of individuals.

Such a program would cost money ranging from several millions in times when jobs are plentiful to approximately \$100,000,000 in "hard times" such as was experienced in the 1930's. And if the sum seems large, just remember there are about a million and a half boys and girls who are not in school.

Even though the sum is large—enough to pay for the war for ten or twelve hours—there are some compensations. The author's grandfather's farm paid in taxes to various governmental units in two generations a considerable sum which would never have been realized had the land remained undeveloped. Young people developed more nearly to their capacities will, in the author's opinion, repay to the government in a generation many times the cost of enabling them to attend school through their increased income taxes. If one has learned from the war, it is that our human resources can be used at the highest level at which they are developed. And our nation could do with thousands more who are better trained. Shall these human resources be allowed to remain idle?

One can ask the Federal Congress for money to enable young people to continue in school and develop their resources with clear conscience, particularly if one does not first demand salary increases for his colleagues, desperately as some of them need more money. As a matter of fact, aid to schools would follow aid to enable individuals to stay in school. One would not even ask that the money be *given* to the young people; merely that the money be made available so that they may earn the necessities for continuing in school decently.

By way of summary may it be said that general education is in an excellent position, at least in forward looking schools, to flourish during and after the war. One of the glowing defects of general education is that it does not touch one fourth of the fourteen to seventeen-year-old boys and girls. By and large, they are not in school because they cannot afford to attend. Recent data, showing that the average annual cost to the individual and his family is \$82, tends to explain why these potential students are not enrolled. School administrators have an obligation to try to make it possible for all able and willing boys and girls to earn the right to attend school.

To fail to seek aid is to shirk our responsibilities as the duly appointed leaders of the teen-age group. To fail to act now is to continue indefinitely the denial of equality of opportunity which is fundamental to democracy.

Foreign Languages and the Army Program

*A statement adopted by the Commission on Trends in Education
of the Modern Language Association of America, Atlantic City,
New Jersey, May 27, 1944.*

THE COMMISSION on Trends in Education of the Modern Language Association of America takes deep satisfaction in the results of the Army Specialized Training Program in preparing thousands of our soldiers to use foreign languages in the national service. It welcomes the wide interest of the public in this demonstration that American youth can become language-minded.

Many persons have been led to believe that these striking results were attained through the discovery of a magical new method. This is by no means true. On the contrary, they were the fruits of the application of well-tried practices. Nor were the results achieved under the direction of linguistic magicians. The entire language program was designed by teachers of foreign languages in consultation with the War Department, and in the fifty-five colleges and universities to which the trainees were assigned the program was entrusted to the foreign language departments, which organized the work, gave instruction to the student-soldiers, and engaged and supervised the special assistants required for the emergency.

Teachers of foreign languages greeted with enthusiasm this opportunity to show what could be done to equip young men with competence in the languages of Europe and other areas. The Army set them a hard task; but it wisely recognized the inadequacy of the time previously allotted to foreign language study, and it provided for intensive practice in the oral use of the languages, with small groups of learners. In place of a course of from three to five classroom hours a week for two years, all that was usually required of the prewar college student, the AST program provided fifteen hours a week, of which ten hours were devoted to intensive practice with groups of not more than ten students—practice largely oral and always in the foreign tongue. In order to match the Army program's total of contact-hours, extending over thirty-six weeks of instruction and supervised practice, it would be necessary to extend the usual two-year civilian course to something over five years. In short, the impressive results of the Army program were due to no miraculous formula, but to a liberal allowance of time and to the opportunity for students to practice the language in the intimacy of a small group. Thousands of foreign language teachers in this country would hail with satisfaction the opportunity to continue to work in the postwar years under conditions as favorable as those which the ASTP provided. It is our earnest hope that the administrative officers of our institutions will now provide for the extension and intensification of the foreign language program.

Curriculum Changes Evolve from our War Experiences*

GUIDANCE

To CARRY out a program of guidance requires a trained personnel. It would be Utopian to hope that each member of the faculty were equipped to do a complete guidance job. Such may be the ultimate aim toward which efforts should be made. Until that happy day a secondary-school faculty may consider itself fortunate if it can find one person thoroughly trained in guidance procedures. This person should have an adequate background of scholarship, some classroom experience, and a knowledge of personnel methods, of vocational demands, and of adolescent psychology. None of these, however, will compensate for lack of warmth of personality that is needed for leadership of youth. An unselfish interest in youth is the one indispensable need for a good counsellor. Granted such a guidance counsellor, the next problem is: "How shall this expert assistance be used to best advantage?"

If guidance is considered the function of the counselor alone, a barrier may soon arise between the teacher who must deal with day by day contacts with pupils and the counsellor who is called in only when difficulties of adjustment appear. The educational process can be successful only if at every point all the information and understanding that can be gathered is available for use by anyone in contact with the pupil. The guidance program must be much more than a "trouble-shooting" program. This leads to the conclusion that the counselor should be the leader and co-ordinator of the guidance program rather than its only practitioner. The chief function of the counselor will be to help teachers to think of pupils as persons, to think of the learning process as only one factor in the total growth of youth. If this is done teachers and sponsors of student groups are trained in service to become counsellors of youth in fact as well as in name.

A GUIDANCE PROGRAM

Guidance started in the vocational field. This is understandable. Until a person has found a place for himself in the society in which he lives he cannot find sources of satisfaction that make life itself worth while. It was soon discov-

*The material of this article is a summary of a report entitled *What Curricular Changes Should be Effected in the Secondary Schools in Order to Meet the Impact of the War Upon Secondary Education*. The complete report setting up policies and the underlying philosophy for curriculum changes now and to meet the postwar needs is the result of the work of a committee under the Chairmanship of Dr. John H. Tyson, Superintendent of Schools, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania. The committee began its deliberations at the Drexel Lodge Conference, Drexel Institute of Technology, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, in June, 1943. Since that time monthly meetings have been held to consider the various aspects of curriculum development. The report on "Guidance" was prepared by Dr. I. R. Kraybill, Principal, Cheltenham Senior High School, Pa.; the one on "English" by Miss Grace Filler, Radnor High School, Pa.; the one on "Geography" by Richard L. Currier, Collingswood High School, New Jersey; and the one on "Science" by Joseph M. Joseph, Smedley Junior High School, Philadelphia.

ered, however, that many other than vocational choices were involved in the development of the total personality. Guidance is needed at every point in the lives of young people. From this realization comes guidance in health, (mental and physical), in educational choices, in social relationships, in moral and aesthetic fields. No program can be called complete unless all of these are planned for. No program can be successful unless it is based on facts. It would seem wise to begin quite modestly with a few significant details and as the program develops add such pertinent material as seems likely to be useful. It can not be too strongly stressed that no information should be assembled unless it is hoped that some use will be made of it. Information should be secured about each pupil's family and about himself as well. Teachers' comments and reports of behavior that might be revealing should be secured. It becomes important that this information be made available to the principal, counsellor, or teacher who may find use for them in dealing with the individual pupil.

Occasions will occur when it will be wise for all the teachers of a student to get together in conference for a frank discussion. This is the technique of the case-study conference. Each teacher brings to the conference a different point of view. Under the leadership of the counsellor a more accurate picture of the student may be presented to each teacher and wise measures of dealing with the student may be found. Notes should be made of such meetings and recorded as a part of the personnel record of the student.

There is a danger that the only students who come to the attention of the guidance counsellor may be the atypical ones, the ones who present obvious problems. To avoid such an error, the counsellor at intervals should see that all students are interviewed. This may be done by the counsellor personally or by a class adviser or home-room sponsor.

Every effort should be made also to see that parents are freely consulted, not only when affairs come to a crisis but when help is needed. School, home, and student, should join in a co-operative effort to find the best way to achieve desirable goals.

MISTAKES TO BE AVOIDED

Three mistakes should carefully be avoided. First, any information that is secured must be treated as *confidentially* as a doctor treats the confidences of his patients. Young teachers especially need to be led to understand this. A second danger is the temptation of persons who do counselling to think of themselves as directors of human actions or behavior. The function of guidance is to help to point a way, not to propel along a road. A third danger lies in the confusion between discipline, using this term in the ordinary sense, and guidance. The disciplinarian function of the school administration is very different from the guidance function. This should always be kept clearly in mind.

ENGLISH

A mastery of the various arts of using one's own language is the most universal of all educational objectives. It has been said that the four language arts are speaking, listening, writing, and reading. The teacher of English is still concerned with the development of these four arts. But it is the duty of the English teacher, also to fit pupils to assume their responsibilities in the future,—not only to equip them with the working tools of reading, writing, and arithmetic, but to foster in them such attitudes toward life that they may use these tools with honor and integrity for the benefit of society as a whole. We believe that the object of all human endeavor is to learn to live in harmony with oneself and with one's fellowmen.

AIMS

The general aims of the teaching of English have not changed during the past several years, but the manner of interpretation has been altered with each changing emphasis in the field of teaching. These aims are: to develop the ability to read, to develop the ability to speak and write, to make English a cultural influence in the lives of the pupils, to utilize the field of English as a vehicle for character education, and to inculcate in the pupils a recognition of human values, concern for the common welfare, and an ability to adjust themselves to the world in which they live.

The English program is based upon the principle that education means teaching pupils, not textbooks; developing minds, not courses; meeting individual needs, not prescribed standards. Consequently a program can be described only in terms of directions, tendencies, and emphasis, not in terms of specific classics, national literatures, literary types, or kinds of written or oral expression. The work in English is the result of three conditioning factors: the needs, the interests, and the abilities of the pupils.

SOME SUGGESTED METHODS OF APPROACH

1. Development of planned units from material used heretofore in desultory fashion—such as magazines, newspapers, radio, films, and motion pictures.
2. Greater individualization of work
 - a. Individual conferences of themes, reading, and the like.
 - b. Special assignments according to interest and ability.
 - c. Individual reading records—especially planned schedules.
 - d. Freedom of students from "mass" requirements where ability has been demonstrated.
 - e. Emphasis on teacher-pupil planning.
3. Functional approach to the teaching of grammar as against "logical" approach. This does not mean the abandonment of the latter, where needs are revealed. Grammar should follow short-term intensive units.

4. Participation in inter-departmental units, bringing in social studies, music, art and any other subjects possible.
5. Development of new units for non-college classes.
6. A reading program covering each year in the school. This program should be two-fold—remedial and developmental—and should include practice to improve techniques and instruction in comprehension and interpretation.
7. Wider use of the forum-discussion groups—or similar opportunities for self-expression.
8. An increased emphasis upon the basic skills—such as punctuation and spelling, and the principles of correct expression.
9. A testing program considered a part of any English program.
10. Greater emphasis upon techniques of special importance to those intending to enter schools of higher learning—note-taking, outlining, precis writing, long-term assignments, and research work.

SUGGESTED COURSE IN LITERATURE ALLOCATED AS TO GRADE

Grades seven and eight—Literature chosen in relation to the study and practice in community life—local, state, national.

Grade nine—Technical phases of English—types of literature including a study of the characteristics and techniques of each type.

Grade ten—American culture—both North and South American.

Grade eleven—English culture—trends in development, recognition of literary forms, increased emphasis on expressions of the rights of man in literature, discussions of problems on human relationships (expanded on twelfth-grade level.)

Grade twelve—World culture—reading chosen from writings translated from Russian, Chinese, French, German, and other European and Asiatic peoples.

There is no limitation as to sources of material—local, national, international—nor as to types of literature—poetry, drama, essay, novel, short story. However, the allocation as to grade reflects the emphasis by grades on certain materials and techniques best designed to meet the needs of the “mass” at any one level. There is, of course, no hard and fast adherence to this framework as given. In the tenth grade, for example, the literary work need not be exclusively American. The teacher merely regards the field of American literature as a prior claim, not as an irrevocable limitation.

Furthermore, choice of literature need not be according to the classic “rating” of a work. A short story may better serve a certain purpose than an eighteenth-century masterpiece. Nor does it mean that “trash” and “easy reading” should tend to replace the great books of ages.

The abilities and special interests of the teachers will have much to do with the emphasis in various grades and classes. A teacher may be expert in lyric poetry, or drama, or technical English, or creative writing or oral

expression. This particular type of ability may be so important as to affect grade placement; in most cases, it may be utilized to become a part of an orchestration from which emerges something like a harmonious unity.

The English program should reflect the whole-school philosophy and should be subject to constant change. This does not mean that changes constantly take place; indeed, most of the elements have been and probably always will remain, stable pillars in the program. It does mean, however, that no element is sacred in and of itself, and that its use will depend upon its value in helping pupils to grow.

GEOGRAPHY

Yesterday we could afford to ignore geography. Blessed with almost limitless resources, a stimulating climate, vast stretches of fertile land, a high level of productive ability we sought the fulfilment of our "Manifest Destiny" here on this continent. We were opposed to participation in international organizations, opposed to international trade which might tend to lower American living standards and threaten the well-being of the American business man—opposed in short, to looking beyond our own frontiers except for a brief sojourn in the Europe of World War I and except for uttering high-minded platitudes about the way other nations should conduct their affairs.

Also we ignored many problems of strictly local or national importance. We have sought political solutions for problems understandable only in geographical terms. We have been prodigal of our natural resources and in wasting this heritage we have neglected the lessons both of history and of geography. Now our resources in fertile soil, petroleum, forests, and bauxite are being depleted at an alarming rate. We are being forced to take stock of our possessions and grim necessity demands that we seek their most efficient use.

NEW WORLD SITUATIONS

We are facing a new world where nations are indeed neighbors with joint problems requiring joint solutions. Also we face a world where the continued exploitation of our natural heritage will certainly increase our dependency on outside sources or perhaps bring us to the verge of national bankruptcy. To understand this world and its problems and to think in the direction where the answers to these problems are most likely to be found require a sounder and much more far-reaching understanding of geography than we now possess.

In international relations following this war the United States may recognize and assume her leadership in world affairs or again she may retire to isolation. In either case her people will need more knowledge of geography. If we actively participate in world affairs we shall need to understand well the location, resources, cultures and problems—real or imaginary—of other peoples. The extent of our co-operation and its value to others and to ourselves will in large measure be limited by our knowing how other groups have

adjusted economically, socially or politically to their surroundings. National aspirations of many European countries are basically geographic.

Our physical barriers against aggression have disappeared. Europe lies just twelve hours away; Asia, twenty-five hours. The future holds promise of greater reducing this time-distance. To live safely in such a world we shall have to possess formidable armament. We shall also have to possess awareness of geographic relations and of danger spots in other lands. For all other regions of the world we shall have to know in detail their resources, the use being made of these resources, the stresses and strains present, the problems arising from these stresses and strains, the possible and probable solutions to these problems, and the relations of these problems and their possible solutions to the future well-being of our own country. We must, then, possess a realistic understanding of the economic, social, and political geography of the world. Since this is a democracy where public opinion retards or accelerates public policy, this knowledge must be held not only by our leaders but also by every citizen. We must, in short, cease being what U. S. Commissioner of Education Studebaker charged us with being "... more illiterate in geography than any other civilized country."

NEED FOR GEOGRAPHIC THINKING

Great is the need for training in geographic thinking and in geographic interpretation of today's problems. How then are the schools meeting this need? Much of the geography taught in our schools ends with the eighth grade. In many cases geography and history are combined into a unified social studies course. Fundamentally there is nothing wrong with this procedure provided the geography content is more than a reference to natural resources and a few map exercises and provided the teacher has training in geographic thinking. Too often social studies courses are taught by trained history teachers highly competent to show the development of man's social, economic, and political institutions down through the ages, but not always so competent to show this development as predominantly an effort by groups to adjust to the surroundings in which they find themselves.

In most communities of the United States, instruction in geography beyond the grammar school is not widespread nor is its character calculated to reach any but a fraction of the students or to give them much valuable training in thinking. In 1934 the U. S. Office of Education at Washington conducted a survey of curriculum in American high schools. Of 17,000 schools reporting, only 5,000 offered some geography instruction. In too many cases this was merely a semester's course in commercial geography for commercial students or others unable to pass successfully other courses. Rarely is geography a required subject and in very few places is there any academic training or certification required of the geography teacher. Presumably anyone is qualified to teach "about places and people."

Briefly, then, we have taught some descriptive geography in the grades and a very slight amount in the secondary schools. We have not considered it of sufficient importance to require teacher certification. Actually a program of geographic instruction should begin in the grades and continue on through the senior year of high school. It should teach geography not as an interesting groups of oddities about peoples and places nor as isolated facts of countries, capitals, resources, and exports to be memorized, but as a dynamic vital attempt by man to live successfully in a certain area. The objective should be to teach young people to think geographically; to analyze local, national, and international problems into their economic, social, and political components; and to show these problems as the successful or unsuccessful adjustment of groups to their environments.

HIGH-SCHOOL COURSES

Only in the high schools do students possess sufficient intellectual maturity to grasp what geography has to teach. Man makes his own geography. It is not static but changes with new processes, inventions, and discoveries. Every improvement in means of transportation has brought man closer together accenting the frictions and emphasizing the need for understanding and co-operation. Each development in the science of agriculture, meteorology, metallurgy, and preventive medicine enables man more largely to control his environment or at least to work with it more harmoniously. To show the impact of these on the lives of peoples and the resulting changes in man's way of living and working is geography. Geography is man-made and ever-changing. There are certain specific concepts that geographic instruction should include in addition to the two basic principals. *First* is a clear concept of this planet on which we live—its motions, dimensions, shape, surface features, and the effects of these on the lives of men. *Secondly* is the concept of location. This includes a knowledge of place, knowing not merely where a place is, but also what it is, to what it is related, who is there and what they are doing. As a people we are embarrassingly ignorant of place conceptions. The current demand for atlases and maps bears witness to this.

Another phase of the concept of location is the idea of position. This is a mathematical idea and involves a thorough understanding of longitude and latitude. An outgrowth of this study is that of maps and projections. We must teach not only what maps are and represent, not only the various projections but, even more important, we must teach that no one type of map solves all problems. The familiar Mercator map with its eastern and western hemispheres was and still is adequate for sea navigation, but as a basis for global thinking it has serious shortcomings. Neither the strategic importance of the Aleutians and Labrador is evident from a Mercator map, nor are the short great-circle routes between the continents. Thus a knowledge of both is necessary.

The concept of location has two other closely related ideas, situation and space relation. Situation means the location of areas with regard to bodies of water and includes among others insular, coastal, peninsular, and continental. The advantages and disadvantages of these situation types are of tremendous importance for understanding international affairs. Russia's long struggle for a warm-water port represents her dissatisfaction with her situation. Such dissatisfaction has resulted in wars in the past and may do so in the future. It may threaten the fulfillment of the Atlantic Charter principles. Space relation involves the relation of place to place. Such places may be central strategic, adjacent, and peripheral. Central location in Columbus' time was the Mediterranean and particularly Italy. That condition soon changed and central location has progressed steadily north and west. Aviation experts who peer into the future predict that soon the Arctic Ocean will soon be central location with the Aleutians, Alaska, Greenland, and Iceland forming strategic stepping-stone bridges connecting the continents of Asia, North America, and Europe. The abortive Japanese expedition in Kiska and Attu indicates their awareness of this shift in strategic location.

A third concept which must underlie geographic thinking is that of environment. While both social and physical forces make up the individual and group environment, geography is primarily concerned with the latter. Physical environment includes climate, land forms, soil, bodies of water, ground water, minerals, vegetation, and animal life. The abundance or lack of any or all of these affect to a marked degree national psychology and national existence. Germany's cry for a "place in the sun" arose from her dissatisfaction with her meager resources. The Japanese cannot be a first rate world power without supplementary sources for obtaining iron, coal, petroleum, and other raw materials essential to heavy industry. It is both an interesting and significant fact that the colonies over which there has been long international contention lie almost entirely in the tropics and sub-tropics. The problems of political control for these areas must take account of the climatic factor.

Physical environment as such, while basic to geographic thinking, is important chiefly with regard to the ways man has adjusted to that environment. Fundamentally man adjusts to his environment in three ways: economically, or how he makes a living; socially, or how he sets up and organizes his relations with his fellows; and politically, or how he governs and directs his actions towards others of his own group and towards other groups. These are the fields which geography instruction in high schools should explore. This is the study which can uncover the reasons for many of the world's ills springing as they do from faulty adjustment to environment in one or more of these ways. Intelligent solutions of problems require intelligent analysis of the factors involved. Geography can supply knowledge of the

faulty relationships with which citizens, scientists, sociologists, psychologists, and statesmen can work toward a solution of these problems.

If we are to prepare young people to understand the world in which they live, if we are to prepare these young people to think and act intelligently in a world suddenly grown small, where the other countries of the world are no longer days and weeks but only hours away, we must teach them to interpret geographically what they hear, read, and see. A nation whose citizens are not aware of realistic and dynamic geographic relationships can not long continue as a great power.

SCIENCE

That the war has affected all of our lives is a trite remark; that the war has affected the teaching of school courses, especially that of the sciences is obvious. However, there are four fields within the scope of science which might properly be given more emphasis and time. These are the fields of meteorology, electronic electricity, navigational astronomy, and sociological biology.

METEOROLOGY

In the field of meteorology, the study of clouds should be intensified. A few years ago, a science teacher treated the study of clouds only superficially as no one believed such ephemeral things could be of any use except as a phase of nature study given to children. Yet the United States Army Air Corps fighters, the P38's, 39's, those flying in China, and in fact the fighters of all the Services were glad to be able to race into the security of certain type clouds when they were overwhelmed by numerically superior enemy planes. The big bombers over Europe cuddle the safety of clouds. Thus what was formerly a useless piece of scenery is turning out to be the element that may mean the difference between life and death.

There is another phase of meteorology which might be included. This is the treatment and measurement of the atmosphere not only at sea level as is done at present, but also at various altitudes directly up to the airplane's ceiling. This, of course, would include the more serious idea that there are air currents with which the navigator should familiarize himself, just as the sea navigator knows the various trade streams and their currents. It is a matter of fact that one of the reasons why Germany has not bombed the eastern coast of the United States is because of the strong westerly winds and patterns of air currents which flow from west to east across the Northern Hemisphere; these currents are of such adverse strength that they compel the consumption of more than three-quarters of the fuel supply required to push the loaded bombers to this country. Therefore, the twenty-five per cent reserve gasoline is not sufficient in marginal safety to return the bomber to Germany. In planning our retaliation bombing of Japan we are going to run into the same problem.

ELECTRONIC ELECTRICITY

The second field, that of electronic electricity, needs no introduction due to the alertness of the electrical industry of America. The teaching of this type of electrical circuit needs to be stressed from the point of view of the vacuum tube with its thermionic action, rather than a program of dynamic electricity and its traditional circuits. The study of electronic electricity probably should be divided into two parts—communication devices, and control devices.

Communication, as it is developed electronically would include the study of high-frequency circuits, and of course, radar, or ultra-high-frequency circuits. The Battle of Britain was won, not alone by the courage and intrepidity of the English fighter planes, but also because the electronic industry had installed in the airplane as well as on the ground sensitive spotting devices—radar controlled—which located the German bomber in the blackness of the night and notified the pilot of the fighting plane when he should touch off his cannons and machine guns that blew the Luftwaffe into oblivion.

In the division of control devices, electronic electricity should include the relationship between the photo-electric cell, the vacuum-tube amplifier, and their magical control over all kinds of motor vehicles and apparatus, such as the raising and lowering of the bomber seats in airplanes, automatic pointing of anti-aircraft guns; in fact, any place where the traditional electric motor was used as motive power the control ceased to be governed by the unit equation of man power and began to function automatically.

NAVIGATION ASTRONOMY

The third field of science, navigational astronomy, again reveals the paradox which has occurred so many times in the history of science. Pure research, or so-called impractical science, turns out to be extremely practical when its application is invoked. It was but a few years ago when the study of the stars in those schools which taught astronomy was limited to a philosophical approach. Today, star study is an applied science. The call for 100,000 airplanes necessitated the training of several hundred thousand navigators. The expansion of a total Navy included navigators for untold thousands of small-sized craft.

The basis of all navigation is contained in the elements of astronomy. Schools should teach navigational astronomy in addition to the more philosophical side of the subject. We cannot start at too young an age to study basic astronomy, especially the fifty-five navigational stars and the fundamentals of finding latitude by simple techniques. The New York public schools are working closely with the Hayden Planetarium to provide all senior high-school students taking science with a program stressing navigational astronomy. Navigational astronomy could be included and made as usable as chemistry or physics.

SOCIOLOGY BIOLOGY

The last field of science lies in a branch of the biological sciences. The biological viewpoint would be enhanced if it contained the sociological values of considering all peoples vertically from high mentality to low, rather than horizontally as is now the custom by tacit agreement among the European empires—the English, the Dutch, the Portuguese, the Spanish. The Teutonic viewpoint brazenly maintains that it has scientific evidence from the laws of Mendel that it is a superior race and that other groups, like the Poles, the French, the Russians, and the Greeks are inferior peoples and that each of these should be stratified according to the German idea of its place in the conquered group. This violates the fundamental concept of Christianity; it violates the fundamental concept of the founding of the American republic.

William Hard, world-wide news commentator, states that ninety per cent of the peoples of the world do not like or trust the ambitions of the British Empire, and that basically one of the reasons why all of these groups do have faith in the United States of America is because they believe that we treat them on the tenet that "all men are created equal." Could biology, therefore, give a new implication to the Mendelian laws of heredity? Could we teach secondary-school pupils to consider all peoples vertically and therefore as possessing superior as well as inferior minds, and to repudiate the old world idea that all colonies may be lawfully exploited, as they are at a lower level than the peoples of the mother empire?

Evaluating Credit

For evaluating the educational experiences of former students in the secondary school applicable to the issue of a diploma from the secondary school, the following publications are recommended:

1. *Earning Secondary-School Credit in the Armed Forces*, March, 1944, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., 12 pages; 10 cents per copy; 25 copies, \$1.50. A statement of guiding policies and recommendations for evaluating and awarding secondary-school credit for educational experience in military service, approved by the five regional accrediting associations and many state departments of education.

2. *A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*, October 1944, American Council on Education, 363 Administration Building, Urbana, Illinois. Approximately 300 pages; \$2.00 per copy. A handbook giving brief descriptions of courses in the Armed Forces for which school and college credit could be given. Conveniently indexed and recommended credit for each course. Highly recommended for every secondary-school office.

Educational Plans of Veterans

WITH THE RECENT passage of the GI Bill by Congress and the return and discharge of many men and women from the Armed Forces come the big questions of how many of these persons will continue their education and of what type will it be. To be able to provide to the fullest extent for the educational needs and desires of these returning veterans, schools and colleges are concerned with these problems. They are making every effort possible to ascertain at least a tentative idea of what is expected of them. They are likewise anxious to satisfy the widely varying educational interests of returned veterans.

The State Department of Education of the state of New Jersey, through its secondary schools, is making a survey and study of the postwar intentions of servicemen. The study is under the direction of William Cain, a teacher of the Robert Treat Junior High School of Newark. When the study is completed its results will be published by the New Jersey Association of Secondary-School Teachers. Below follow some of the findings of this study to date. Four hundred thirty-five servicemen have been contacted to date. This group was divided into four groups—those who had been graduated from college before entering the Service, those who were in college but had not been graduated before entering the Service, those who had been graduated from high school but had not gone to college before entering the Service, and those who had not completed their high-school education. Of this group of 435, there were 8.5 per cent college graduates, 17.7 per cent were college undergraduates, 60.6 per cent were non-college, and 13.1 per cent were high-school undergraduates. The tabulation below pictures what the education plans of each of these four groups are. For example, of the college graduates, 43.2 per cent plan to take graduate work in college, 5.4 per cent plan to go to vocational or technical schools, and 51.4 per cent do not plan graduate work.

EDUCATIONAL PLANS OF 435* RESPONDENT SERVICEMEN

College Graduates (8.5%)	
Plan to do graduate work (3.7%)	43.2%
Plan to go to vocational or technical school (.5%)	5.4%
Plan not to do graduate work (4.3%)	51.4%
College Undergraduates (17.7%)	
Plan to return to college (16.5%)	93.5%
Plan not to return to college (1.5%)	6.5%
Non-college High-School Graduates (60.6%)	
Plan to attend college (28.4%)	46.9%
Plan to attend vocational and technical school (4.2%)	6.8%
Plan not to attend college or school (28%)	46.2%
High-School Undergraduates (13.1%)	
Plan to return to high school (6%)	45.6%
Plan to attend Vocational and Technical School (1.1%)	8.8%
Plan not to return to school (6%)	45.6%

*Percentages included in parenthesis indicate the per cent a specific group is of the 435 respondents.

The Out-of-Class Curriculum in the Secondary School

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DEEP IN THE HEARTS of all men is the desire for liberty—the right to have something to say about their own lives. This truth, recorded in the Declaration of Independence and guaranteed in the Constitution of the United States of America, is the foundation stone upon which our democracy rests. Since time began, human beings have been striving to learn how to live together. Numberless patterns of human relationships have been tried, ranging from anarchy on the one hand to dictatorship on the other. Among all these efforts, democracy on the American pattern is the most promising for a better world. Liberty under law, recognizes the worth of the individual, and at the same time gives him an opportunity to participate in the common welfare. Dictatorships, whether that of the benevolent autocrat or of the so-called proletariat, carry within them the seeds of their own destruction because they deny to men this inalienable right of liberty.

The democratic way of life is the goal towards which mankind must ever strive, since it is but a projection of that true pattern of human relationships enunciated by the great teacher, "Do unto others as you would have others do unto you." Because mankind has not yet reached this desired goal, there are some who proclaim that it is but a mirage. They say you cannot change human nature. They assert that man is fundamentally selfish and that he will always seek special privileges for his own ends. Such pessimists fail to take into account the tremendous progress that mankind has already achieved. In spite of all the injustices and evil in our human relationships, the world is a better place in which to live than it has ever been before.

This global war is being fought to preserve the right of the individual man to that measure of liberty consistent with the common welfare. What mankind needs is to learn better than he has ever learned before, the ways of democracy. The American school is the instrument that society has devised to help us achieve and preserve our freedoms. As teachers and administrators, we have a great responsibility. We must make sure that the ways of democracy are thoroughly understood and practiced. Are we making the most of our opportunities?

THE OUT-OF-CLASS CURRICULUM—THE TRAINING GROUND OF DEMOCRACY

It is now generally understood among educators that the school curriculum includes not only the formal and organized courses of instruction, but also the out-of-class activities which constitute the life of the school. Recent surveys of school systems, such as the Regents Inquiry in the State of New York, indicate that the formal academic life of the secondary schools receives

the major attention of school administrators, while the out-of-class activities are somewhat neglected. Further studies show that social and civic competence—the ability to get on with people and to co-operate successfully in our democratic society—are closely related to these out-of-class activities. Since success in life is so largely dependent upon social and civic competence, it behooves the school administrator to pay particular attention to that phase of the curriculum which gives the best promise of preparing young people to meet out-of-school problems. These problems are best met by experience in living. The up-to-date secondary school, therefore, becomes a place for both learning and living.

The school administrator who desires to emphasize the whole curriculum and to provide an environment in which the educational values of the out-of-class activities may function will turn his attention to the variety of interests which characterize youth. Some of these no doubt will grow out of the academic curriculum, for example: clubs in foreign languages, art, radio, science, or student publications. Others will grow out of the school life itself, such as class organizations, school and class socials and plays, and auditorium programs and assemblies. Still others will have their origins in the needs of the larger society outside of the school. Examples of these would be the sale of war bonds and stamps, civilian services, salvage drives, Red Cross activities, and the like. Another field of vital interest is that of competitive athletics. Many other activities could be mentioned, but these are sufficient to illustrate the problem. To the above list we may also add the student council and the home-room activities which are semi-official in character, since they help to contribute to the administrative efficiency of the school.

The feature which distinguishes all of the above-mentioned activities from those of the prescribed in-class-curriculum is that they may be largely planned and directed by the students themselves. Thus they provide not only an excellent outlet for that vital energy and initiative which characterizes all healthy youth but also a rich opportunity to learn the ways of democracy through participation. The experiences gained in this self-management are of the utmost importance because here the student finds an opportunity to test himself in situations which are to him extremely real. Too often in the regular curriculum he may read and study about democracy and the democratic processes, and he may be taken with other members of his class to see agencies of a city, state, or national government at work. These are good, but they are at best vicarious experiences and lack the essence of meaning because they are planned by someone else. When the student actively participates in the election of his class officers in the management of a club program, in the development and presentation of an assembly program, serves on a committee or works on the student council, he begins to experience democracy for himself and to gain an insight into its real meaning.

For a long time, school administrators viewed the usual out-of-class activities with misgiving and disfavor. These activities were considered to be a nuisance and were tolerated only because they were sometimes valuable in raising money for athletics or other practical purposes or because they seemed to serve on occasion as a sort of peace offering to the students. The traditional schoolman placed his faith in the prescribed course of study presented with authoritative force and received with ready obedience by the students. There was little of the democratic process in evidence and little opportunity for the students to experience self-direction. Probably the antidote to such situations was the sporadic outbursts of rebellion against authority which sometimes gave the students an opportunity to take into their own hands the direction of their activities.

The modern school administrator takes the view that the energy and initiative of youth should be capitalized. He recognizes that these are fundamental elements in the democratic process. He believes that there is no complete substitute for experience; that is learning by doing. He looks upon these out-of-class activities as interesting and stimulating instruments by means of which students, under guidance, may gain actual experience in democracy. He knows, however, that the successful conduct of these out-of-class activities requires constant attention. "Eternal vigilance is the price of liberty." In order that all students may get the most out of their experiences in self-direction, there must be a continuous process of informal education and re-education. To insure the co-ordination and promotion of the out-of-class curriculum, it must become the responsibility of some member of the faculty who is given adequate time for this purpose. This person must not only have a lively interest in education, a sympathetic understanding of youth, ability to gain the co-operation of fellow teachers, and skill in organization but also a sound conception of the meaning of democracy and the part that the self-directing activities of youth play in preparation for effective citizenship.

Such a co-ordinator will find that his work falls into two main divisions: first with the faculty; second with the student body. The faculty is mentioned first because the success of the out-of-school program depends in large measure upon a favorable climate of opinion in which to operate. If the faculty is definitely hostile or merely apathetic, the best student-activity program in the world will wither and die. Students of secondary-school age are still in the process of learning, and like all beginners, they are prone to make mistakes. The alert and interested faculty views these mistakes with understanding, and sees in them opportunities to drive home facts about democratic procedures.

When we come to the student body, we see at once that learning the ways of democracy should not be left to experience alone. In addition to the experience, there should be a genuine effort to help the students understand the sig-

nificance of the procedures by which democratic action is achieved. This is a task not only for the co-ordinator and the sponsors, but for every member of the faculty. We see now that the co-ordinator of school life is charged with a heavy responsibility. He is not merely another teacher who directs a play and organizes an assembly program. Rather it is his task to discover and give due weight to all those forces in student life which may be made to contribute to experience in democratic living, to illumine those forces with the light of understanding, and to inspire the whole school to strive for the highest expression of democracy in action. Let us now briefly outline some of the possibilities which lie before the co-ordinator.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR PRACTICING THE WAYS OF DEMOCRACY

The Home Rooms

The home room, like the home in the community, may be looked upon as the unit of social living. In the junior high school the time allotted to the home room is adequate, but even though the time schedule in the senior high school may allow but a few minutes a day for this activity, much valuable experience in student self-direction may be achieved. There may well be a home-room organization with officers elected by ballot. Plans for the promotion of student activities to aid the war effort, to improve the community, or to support some project for the school, provide opportunities for committee membership, discussion and group thinking, and practice in parliamentary procedure. The co-ordinator should co-operatively lay down a pattern for home-room activities. The home-room teachers and the pupils should plan the programs. It is important to note that the students should be included in the planning, otherwise one of the most significant experiences may be lost.

Among the many school problems that may engage the attention of the home room is that of attendance. Various plans have been worked out for checking and reporting on absence and for rendering a helping hand to the absentees by taking to them books and lesson plans. An active interest in the welfare of members of the home room, when manifested in this fashion, contributes greatly to the welfare of the individual and of the school.

Student and Class Councils

A student council concerned with vital activities relating to the welfare of the school provides excellent opportunities for experience in democratic procedures. However, it may be noted that it is a waste of time and energy to set up the machinery for a student council unless the students are permitted to participate in school affairs which are important, worth while, and of real service.

Clubs

School clubs have alternately been praised and condemned. However, there is no agency in the school that offers a better opportunity for genuine

learning and practice in the ways of democracy than a well organized club. Such a club is composed of members who have a genuine interest in the problem or project in hand. The project must be worth while educationally, and command the full respect of the club members. The group should be largely self-directing, thereby providing opportunities for the practice of group judgment and leadership. Since it is based upon pupil interest, the resulting learnings are bound to be more extensive and lasting than is usually the case in more formal class instruction.

The criticism of clubs as they have been conducted in the junior high school has been chiefly due to the requirement that all pupils and teachers must participate. This blanket requirement was due to two more or less mistaken causes—a profound belief that every child should have the benefit of club experience, and an earnest desire on the part of administrators to spread the teaching load fairly among the members of the faculty. As a result, some pupils and teachers were always coerced into activities which were neither educationally valuable nor innately interesting.

A good club program can be conducted in any secondary school, providing someone will seek out the interests or hobbies of pupils and teachers, and provided members of the faculty are willing to serve as sponsors. Such willingness on the part of the faculty is a sure indication of a sound professional interest in the education of youth.

The educational value of a club cannot be determined by the same standards as those applied to elements in the formal curriculum. Perhaps as good a rule as we can find is an adaptation of Prof. Briggs' statement on the purpose of secondary education, namely, "Teach the pupils to do better the desirable things that they are likely to do anyway."

Assembly Programs

There are many kinds of assembly programs. Two are mentioned. The general program which may mark a special event and the program that is developed by a class or a department of the school to demonstrate its working. These types of programs are more common in the junior high school than in the senior high school, but they can be used with profit in either place. The first type evolves under the immediate guidance of the director of social arts or the co-ordinator. If the students are to derive full benefit, they must be included in the planning as well as in the presentation. The second type of program develops under the guidance of a teacher or a head of the department. The program is presented as a "flowering" of the work of the department, and it serves to arouse interest on the part of other students and may be of great value in promoting the department in the school. In this situation, the director of social arts or the co-ordinator, co-operates as fully as possible, assisting in training the participants and advising regarding the details of the presentation.

Auditorium Programs

In the junior high school, each pupil is scheduled for one period a week in the auditorium. While this looks like a scheduled class with a course of study, it is designed to give pupils training in dramatics, public speaking, audience behavior, character education, and to develop those personal skills which are helpful in democratic procedures.

The good results of the auditorium programs have been very marked among senior high-school students who have had the benefit of this work. Typical examples are found in the dramatics of the senior high schools, the quality of the work done by students who participate in graduation exercises, and in the Junior Town Meeting.

General School Activities

It is not necessary to expand further on such activities as plays and operettas, class socials, sales of war bonds and stamps, rationing, civilian services, and salvage drives or interscholastic athletics. All the activities which have so far been mentioned, when properly organized and co-ordinated, result in actual practice in the ways of democracy and an improved school spirit.

The student in junior or senior high school who is an active participant in any one or several of the out-of-class activities which have been mentioned, feels that he belongs and that he is contributing something by his membership in the school. All principals and teachers who are professionally concerned about the best educational experiences for youth will feel the necessity for utilizing every opportunity to promote the out-of-class curriculum.

OUR PRESENT SITUATION

Junior High Schools

The importance of the out-of-class curriculum was fully recognized when the junior high school plan was inaugurated in Providence in 1927. At that time, a member of the faculty in each school was given the responsibility of promoting and co-ordinating the auditorium program, home-rooms, student council, traffic squads, assembly programs, school and class plays, class parties and school socials, clubs, and all other socializing activities which concern the life of the school. As long as these activities are treated as haphazard happenings that interfere unduly with the regular work of the school, and demand much extra effort, their successful co-ordination requires a great amount of planning and many conferences with individuals and groups. In recognition of these facts, about one half of the weekly program of the teacher in charge has been left free for such planning and conferences.

During the many years that this plan has been in operation, it has proved its worth in the smooth running of the schools, and has more than justified the hopes of its originators. Adjustments have been made from time to time, but the original pattern still stands with the single exception of the club pro-

gram. Formerly, club meetings were held on school time. Now they are held, if at all, out of school. The wisdom of this change is doubtful. Although the club program was discontinued before the war, it may be well to continue it as an after-school activity, since many of the older pupils and some teachers are doing war work or helping in stores. However, as soon as the situation is normal, the clubs should be reincorporated into the weekly schedule of the junior high school.

The war has changed some of the emphases of school life. Junior Red Cross activities, salvage drives, the sale of war bonds and stamps and other community services have assumed importance, while plays, socials, and interscholastic athletics have receded into the background. In spite of these changes one should not lose sight of the fact that the out-of-class curriculum plays a most important part in the development of the individual pupil, in the effective operation of the school, and in the development of a strong school spirit.

Senior High Schools

With the completion of the new buildings, now occupied by Hope and Mt. Pleasant High Schools, Providence found itself with three regional high schools adequately planned and equipped to furnish both in- and out-of-class curriculums. In each of the three regional high schools, Central, Hope, and Mt. Pleasant, a member of the faculty was delegated as a co-ordinator, whose duty it was to promote the out-of-class curriculum. Here, as in the junior high schools, the war has changed the emphasis. One of the most important changes has been the increased efforts to understand and practice democracy, the way of life for which the war is being fought. Because of the present situation and the future developments which are in preparation now, it has seemed fitting to review the philosophy which underlies the out-of-class curriculum, to see where the program may be improved, and to measure its educational possibilities against the present and future needs of our American society.

Superintendents Evaluate Various Compulsory Youth Programs

Should the United States, in the postwar era, do anything more than was done in the past to prepare young men for effective military service? If so, should the training consist of direct military instruction and drill? Should it be some form of national service, largely non-military? Should it be an extensive camping program to improve health and physical fitness? The December issue of the *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, 1201-16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C., reports the opinions of 1300 superintendents of schools on these and related questions. The bulletin throws important new light on the issues and implications of universal peacetime conscription, which is being widely advocated.

Secondary-School Student Wage Earners*

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HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS throughout the country are being drawn into the labor force in unprecedented numbers. Many thousands have quit school altogether to take jobs in defense plants and in industries that have been drained of their usual labor supply by the exodus of workers to Military Service or to better-paying jobs in war industries. Many more thousands of students, although still remaining in school, are working outside of school hours at part-time jobs, some even at full-time jobs. Reports coming to the Children's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor from work-permit offices during the last two years show a steady increase in the number of permits and age certificates issued to young people for work outside school hours. Statistics from school-placement offices and from employment agencies—Federal, state, and local—tell the same story of this ever-growing army of student workers. City school officials in a number of states reported during the school year 1942-43 that from one third to more than one half of the high-school enrollment was employed in one way or another before or after school.

At the same time a downward trend in school efficiency and morale is commented upon by educators in various parts of the country. Although this may be due in part to numerous reasons connected with the war, such as lessened parental care and emotional disturbance arising from strained living conditions, most school officials nevertheless declare that one of the principal factors in lowered classroom efficiency is the heavy work program carried on by many adolescent boys and girls in addition to their school tasks. Teachers complain that students are going to sleep in school, often because of late-night work in such places as bowling alleys and drugstores or early-morning work on milk and paper routes. They also report more and more tardiness and absence on the part of many pupils, with a consequent falling behind in studies. It is inevitable that if young people spend late afternoons and evenings of school days in regular jobs, they will either have to sit up very late to study lessons or neglect them altogether. Even if they do not have to study much outside of school hours, continued night work is very detrimental to the general well-being of young people who have already expended a good part of their energy in a five- or six-hour school day.

In order to get a clear-cut picture of the extent and kinds of employment among school pupils, a necessary preliminary step in the planning of any program looking toward the direction or control of such employment, the Children's Bureau undertook a detailed study of the situation in an important war-production area. The city chosen for the survey was Baltimore, Maryland.

*The complete report, entitled *Student Wage Earners in Wartime* (46 pages, mimeographed) can be secured from the U. S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

METHODS AND SCOPE OF STUDY

The study was made in co-operation with the Baltimore City Department of Education and was based on information obtained from questionnaires distributed to pupils in the thirty-six public schools of the city as follows: 9 senior high schools—7 white, 2 negro; 19 junior high schools—16 white, 3 negro; and 8 vocational schools—7 white, 1 negro.

These questionnaires asked for information relating to the work of students outside regular school hours during the week of December 7 to 13 and were answered by all students in attendance on December 14. (A few students absent on that day answered them on December 15 and 16.) Home-room teachers supervised the filling out of the forms and assisted otherwise in the survey.

Each student was first asked to answer a few general questions as to school, grade, age, and sex, and whether or not he had done any kind of work for pay, other than housework or chores in own home, outside of school hours during the previous week. If he answered the last question in the affirmative, he was then asked to fill in the remainder of the questionnaire which related specifically to his job, that is, the exact nature of his work, the clock hours worked each day, and his earnings for that particular week. In addition he was asked to describe any accident that might have occurred to him on that job and to state the nature of the injury.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

One out of every three was a wage earner as well as a student. While one in four was a wage earner in the junior high schools, it was every other student in the vocational schools and almost as high a proportion in the senior high schools.

More than one half of the students sixteen years of age and over, and one fourth of those under sixteen had jobs outside of school hours. Even the youngest found paying jobs, one fifth of those under fourteen reporting themselves as workers.

Most of the jobs held by these students were in trade and service industries. The jobs that the young folk undertook before or after school were largely of the blind-alley type, temporarily paying good wages but having little to offer as stepping stones to a satisfactory work career. White boys and girls waited on customers or took care of stock in grocery stores and markets, in five-and-ten-cent department stores, and were "soda jerkers" in drugstores. Negro young people served food in restaurants, washed dishes, were porters and helpers in hospitals and laundries, domestic servants, and bootblacks. Young boys, both white and negro, worked late at night setting pins in bowling alleys, and older white boys ushered in theaters. The youngest girls minded babies in the evening while parents went to the movies, or did housework for neighbors.

A special analysis of the data obtained in three large schools showed that nearly one third of about 1,600 student workers were employed at their jobs regularly on six or seven days in the week. Moreover, many boys and girls were working excessively long hours not just on Saturdays but on days when they also went to school. Over one fourth of those under sixteen were employed more than eighteen hours in the week of the survey, some working thirty to forty hours or more. Among the sixteen- and seventeen-year-old workers alone, one seventh were employed more than twenty-eight hours a week, clearly too heavy a work program for most students to carry in addition to full-time school.

Night work was the rule rather than the exception. Two thirds of the students who had jobs on school days did not stop work until after seven o'clock and fifteen per cent kept on working until after ten o'clock, some even up to midnight or 1:00 A.M. Much of this night work was, of course, contrary to the hour provisions of the state child-labor law. In fact, over forty per cent of all student workers under sixteen in the three schools of the special study were employed in violation of age, hour, or work-certificate provisions of that law.

Recognizing the fact that many hours of work outside school are likely to have a harmful effect on the health and education of school youth, the United States Office of Education, the War Manpower Commission, and the Children's Bureau issued a joint statement in September, 1943, on recommended policies for part-time employment of school youth. This statement declares that no child under fourteen should be a part of the hired labor force; the number of hours of work on any school day for young people fourteen and fifteen years of age should not exceed three, the combined hours of school and work should not exceed eight, and the weekly hours of work should not exceed eighteen; for youth sixteen and seventeen years of age, the hours of work on any school day should not exceed four, the combined hours of school and work should not exceed nine, and the weekly hours should not exceed twenty-eight.

Many had jobs that were unsuited to their ages and some got hurt, as for instance, the helpers in grocery stores whose fingers were cut when using meat slicers, and the pin boys in bowling alleys who were hit on the head by balls or flying pins. The accidents reported, although meager, give some idea of the hazards to which the youngest workers in a big city are subjected. It is hoped, however, that even these few findings in regard to accidents may be useful in connection with setting up and keeping safety standards for young workers in occupations and industries in which they are being employed in increasingly large numbers. Attention is particularly called to the many accidents from cutting and slicing machines in meat markets and grocery stores and the need for a minimum age for work involving the use of these

appliances. Enforcement of the night-hour provisions of the child-labor laws might help to reduce hazards in these stores, since it is doubtless weariness from too long hours of work that causes some of the accidents.

The weekly earnings of these young workers varied greatly according to age, sex and race of the student, the nature of the job held, and the number of hours worked. Some students earned only a few cents, and some \$20 or more. The median weekly earnings, however, were \$5.36 for the entire group—\$5.65 for the boys and \$4.97 for the girls. The negro boys, because they worked more hours during the week, made more than the white boys. The white girls, on the other hand, who had more opportunities for employment in retail trade, had larger earnings than the negro girls, who were employed almost exclusively in service occupations.

This survey of student wage earners in the Baltimore public schools has revealed a number of problems that concern not only the present but the future welfare of young people in that city. These problems are not peculiar to Baltimore; they exist in many cities throughout the land. Briefly stated they are as follows:

1. The employment of large numbers of school boys and girls for too long and too late hours and often in unsuitable types of jobs.
2. The employment of large numbers of youth under sixteen years of age, including a considerable number under fourteen, in violation of the state and Federal child-labor laws.
3. An apparent limitation on the kinds of work opportunities open to young people of minority groups.

The existence of such problems in any community calls for the concentrated attention of community groups and public officials, particularly those concerned with education and labor and the enforcement of the laws regulating school attendance and employment of minors. Study of these problems leads to questions of how to strengthen the administrative machinery of education and labor agencies giving services to young people entering employment, and of how to provide an adequate staff to cope with the increasing magnitude of the problems.

Any program designed for the better guidance and regulations of the employment of school youth so that their work may have the highest possible value for themselves and the community, should take into consideration the following needs:

1. Adoption of advisory standards for part-time employment of school youth when existing legal standards do not provide adequate protection for them.
2. Adequate vocational-counseling and placement services for students and adequate staff and facilities for offices issuing employment and age certificates, with co-operation among these services.

3. An adequate staff of attendance officers in the schools and of inspectors in the labor department.
4. Some system within each school by which the principal and counselors may be kept informed of the outside work activities of the pupils.
5. Inclusion in high-school courses of the study of labor problems and standards affecting youth.
6. Utilization of all available adult labor supply of the community, including minority groups, before calling school youth into the labor market.

Improvement in conditions harmful to youth, such as are revealed by this study, can be attained only if the task is first envisaged as a community responsibility and only if the concerted and continued effort of the community is directed to that end. It requires joint action by public agencies and private groups concerned with the problem, and education of the public on the facts and their implications. Only so can the education of youth be safe-guarded for the benefit of the nation, and only so can the part-time employment of school youth be limited to conditions consistent both with their welfare and with the best contribution to the labor force during the present emergency.

Canadian Government Documentary Films

The National Film Board of Canada, with headquarters for non-theatrical distribution in the U. S. at 84 East Randolph Street, Chicago, announces that sixteen American universities now have well-stocked libraries of recent Canadian releases. These documentary films, presenting Canada at war and as a nation, are available in 16 mm. sound to schools, churches, clubs, civic organizations and adult study groups at a nominal rental charge. Schools and organizations interested in utilizing these films in their United Nations programs may apply to the Departments of Visual Education in the following Universities: University of California at Berkeley, University of Connecticut, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah, Pennsylvania State College, University of Missouri, Oregon State College at Corvallis, University of North Carolina, University of Michigan, University of Nebraska, University of South Carolina, Central Washington College of Education at Ellensburg, University of South Dakota, Iowa State College at Ames, University of Oklahoma, New York University, Indiana University.

The films available from these sources are: *Peoples of Canada*, (21 min.); *Food—Weapon of Conquest*, (20 min.); *Battle for Oil*, (17 min.); *Battle of the Harvests*, (22 min.); *Forward Commandos*, (22 min.); *Women Are Warriors*, (20 min.); *Atlantic Patrol*, (10 min.); *Battle of Brains*, (13 min.); *Guards of the North*, (11 min.); *Heroes of the Atlantic*, (15 min.); *Tools of War*, (20 min.); *Heritage*, (17 min.); *Hot Ice*, (21 min.); *Story of Canadian Pine*, (30 min.); *Timber Front*, (21 min.); *Battle Is Our Business*, (35 min.); *Soldiers All*, (20 min.); *Fight for Liberty*, (37 min.); *Fighting Ships*, (24 min.); *Ottawa on the River*, (18 min.); *Ottawa, Wartime Capital*, (11 min.); *Strategy of Metals*, (19 min.); *Wings of Youth*, (19 min.); *Alexis Tremblay*, (35 min.); and *Ukrainian Dance*, (16 min.). Most of the films may also be purchased. Prices may be secured from the Chicago office.

Education for the War Veteran

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THE 78th Congress, near the close of its eventful session, has provided for the further education of veterans of World War II by the passage of two bills:

1. *Public Law 16, approved March 24, 1943.* This law provides for the vocational rehabilitation of disabled veterans.
2. *Public Law 346, approved June 22, 1944.* This law, popularly known as the G. I. Bill of Rights, provides financial assistance to veterans who wish to continue their education.

WHO ARE ELIGIBLE FOR EDUCATION UNDER PUBLIC LAW 16?

Briefly stated, the veteran who has

- a. been in active military or naval service on or after Sept. 16, 1940, and during the present war.
- b. been discharged or released from active service under conditions other than dishonorable.
- c. a disability which was incurred in or aggravated by his service in the Armed Forces and for which a pension is payable according to the laws and limitations of the Veterans Administration.
- d. need for rehabilitation to overcome the handicap of his disability.

It is difficult to estimate the total number of veterans that will seek education in our secondary schools under the provisions of this law because the total number of disabled veterans can not be known now.

In World War I, there were about 5,000,000 in the Armed Forces, with about 2,000,000 in the overseas forces. About 330,000 men applied for rehabilitation within a ten-year period and 179,000 of these were given training.

Our present Armed Forces number in men and women nearly three times as many as in World War I, and about 6,000,000 are overseas although some of these are women who will not incur disabilities in the same degree as men. Our best estimate is about 1,650,000 pensionable disabilities, of which about 1,250,000 may need vocational rehabilitation during a ten-year period. What educational opportunities can your school offer to these veterans?

What Are Some of the Other Significant Provisions of Public Law 16?

The course of training must not exceed four years and must be completed within six years after the expiration of World War II.

All tuition charges are paid by the Veterans Administration.

The veteran receives, during the training period and for two months after his employability is determined, \$80 per month if single and \$90 per month if married and \$10 per month additional for each dependent child or parent.

2. WHO ARE ELIGIBLE FOR EDUCATION UNDER PUBLIC LAW 346?

Briefly stated, the veteran who has

- a. been in active military or naval service (men and women) on or after September 16, 1940, and prior to the termination of World War II, for ninety days or more (unless discharged for service injury), exclusive of any period he was assigned for a course of education or training under the Army Specialized or the Navy College Training Program.
- b. been discharged or released from the Service under conditions other than honorable.
- c. had his education impeded, delayed, interrupted, or interfered with by reason of his entrance in the Service. The general assumption is made that all not over twenty-five years of age at the time of entrance in the Service have had an interruption in their educational plans.
- d. first availed himself of this educational opportunity within the time that is not later than two years after his discharge or the termination of the present war. All are entitled to one year of educational work. Continuation after the first year depends on how successful the veteran is in his work with a maximum amount allowable to him on the basis of his total time in the Service beyond ninety days. Total maximum time for any veteran is four years, which must be completed within seven years.

What Are Some of the Other Provisions in Public Law 346?

The veteran may enroll in any approved private or public educational institution he may elect, even outside his own state, if such institution will accept or retain him as a student or trainee. The customary cost of tuition and institutional fees customarily charged, exclusive of board, lodging, or other living expenses, will be paid to the educational institution for the veteran, under provision of the law, by the Veterans Administration. The maximum amount can not exceed \$500 for any one veteran for an ordinary school year.

The veteran receives an allowance of \$50 per month if single and \$75 per month if he has one or more dependents. This includes regular holidays and leave not exceeding thirty days in a calendar year.

How Many Veterans Will Seek Secondary Education Under Public Law 346?

Here, we must refer to the available statistical information of the educational statuses of all in the Armed Forces and, then, make an estimate of the probable desires for education.

Of the personnel in the Armed Forces approximately

- 30 per cent have completed the eighth grade or less,
- 32 per cent have completed one to three years of high school,
- 24 per cent have been graduated from high school,
- 11 per cent have completed one to three years of college, and
- 3 per cent are graduates of colleges.

Those who will wish to seek education on the secondary-school level will come largely from the first two groups and some from the third group, or from a group that will total about 86 per cent of the total of 14,000,000 men and women. Many of these will be of such an age that they will seek very little if any education and the number of casualties must be considered. Assuming that a maximum number of 10,000,000 veterans could be interested, we can compare this number to the normal population of 140,000,000 in the continental and territorial United States and her possessions and find that one out of fourteen in our total population might be interested as a veteran.

In a city of 50,000, there ought to be about 3,500 veterans. Further estimates from a poll of educational interest in the postwar period by men and women in the Armed Forces show that only one or two out of every ten veterans will seek education after the close of the war. This would make a group of 350 to 700 veterans in a city of 50,000 that would at any time want education. These will not want education at the same time and some will want education beyond the secondary-school level so a further estimate would give 100 to 200 a year over a three- to six-year period when the maximum number will be available after demobilization.

WHAT CAN SCHOOLS DO FOR THESE VETERANS?

The provision of these two laws opens to the veteran almost any kind of training our schools can offer. No one seems to know now just what kind of education will be best for the veteran. Schools and states are considering this problem. Some conferences are being held to consider the issue. Among such conferences was the regional conference in Boston on September 25, 26, and 27, 1944, for the educational leaders in the state departments of education for the New England and Middle Atlantic states. During this three-day conference, the many groups discussed *The Adjustment of Educational Programs to Meet the Needs of Returning Veterans*. Separate sections were provided for discussion of topics such as *Evaluation of the Training, Experience, and Education¹ Received in the Armed Forces*, *Educational Opportunities for Returning Veterans²*, and *Uniform Practices and Procedures Which the States Should Adopt to Meet the Needs of Returning Veterans*.

There is an implied need for educational and vocational counselling for the veteran as one of the essential educational services the schools and state can render. In many communities, the veteran has already been given counselling to aid him in adjusting himself. This counselling service must be skilled

^{1/} Excellent publications on these topics:

For secondary schools—*Earning Secondary-School Credit in the Armed Forces*, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D. C., 1944, 10 cents.

For secondary schools and colleges—*A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*, American Council on Education, 363 Administration Building, Urbana, Illinois, 1944, \$2.00.

^{2/} For secondary schools and colleges—*A Program for the Education of Returning Veterans*, Educational Policies Commission, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., 10 cents.

counselling and the counsellor must have a knowledge of the job qualifications, kind of training needs, the available educational resources to provide such training, and an intelligent understanding of the educational needs of the veterans. The Veterans Administration is providing such guidance and counselling centers. Schools should work co-operatively with these agencies as they become operative. Just recently classes in colleges and universities are being organized in which veterans are being trained to work in counselling centers as counsellors. Here the veteran can go to secure advice and information.

Education for the veteran must be at his own level. His wide experience and his life, abnormal in many respects, have developed for him such a maturity of personality that his interests will not be the same as those youth that are now in the secondary school. It appears advisable in the larger communities to provide educational opportunities for him that are separate from the existing schools or that he be given a special time, late afternoons or evenings, at an accelerated rate for such training. He should be treated as an individual with special needs.

The secondary schools trained thousands of war-production workers and such courses were short-term terminal courses. Many of our veterans will want similar kinds of training it is believed.

In Kansas City, Missouri, as in many other larger communities, terminal courses were provided on a training schedule that ranged from twenty weeks to three years. The courses in the Kansas City schools were:

Accountant	Junior Geologist
Airplane Mechanic	Junior Mechanical Engineer
Auto Mechanic	Laboratory Technologist
Bacteriologist	Linotype Operator
Beauty Operator	Machinist
Bookkeeping-Machine Operator	Mason (Brick and Stone)
Cabinet Maker	Medical Technologist
Calculating-Machine Operator	Milliner
Carpenter	Pattern Maker
Commercial Artist	Photographer
Commercial Cook	Printer
Costume Designer	Printing-Press Feeder
Dictaphone Operator	Radio Announcer
Draftsman	Radio—Program Director
Dressmaker	Recreational Leader
Electrician	Secretary
Hand Compositor	Sewing-Machine Operator
Home Economist	Sheet-Metal Worker
Interior Decorator	Shoe-Repair Man
Junior Aeronautical Engineer	Social Worker
Junior Chemical Engineer	Stenographer
Junior Chemist	Surveyor
Junior Civil Engineer	Tailor
Junior Dietician	Typist
Junior Electrical Engineer	Welder

High School and Emotional Adjustment of Youth in the Army

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WE ARE building a large Army. Physical vigor and motor co-ordination are military assets of *young* men. Hence many high-school youth are of preferred military age. These potential soldiers deserve special attention concerning differences between Army life and the peacetime life for which educational and civic experience typically prepares youth. One important difference relates to recreation and emotional adjustment. High schools could help orient youth concerning adjustments demanded in this area by Army life, and thus help youth avoid pitfalls and empty existence.

Much has been said about routine, industrial workers and their need for recreation to insure physical and emotional balance. The factory assembly line is a symbol of industrial routine, but under private and public auspice many recreational opportunities have become available to industrial workers. High schools, too, seek to train youth for the constructive use of leisure time.

When a youth enters the Armed Forces, however, he leaves the acquaintances and facilities to which his recreational habits are attached. No loss might result if he went to a life comparatively free from routine and monotony—a life generating no recreational need. The Army, however, is a large and highly organized body of persons. Organization means specialization, specialization means repetition, and repetition means monotony. Although factory work may illustrate routine and monotony in civil life, these qualities also exist in government offices, large educational institutions and professional organizations. Even housewives testify to the monotony-potential of dish washing. Routine has output value in material production; it also has personality-disorganizing influence through neglecting aspects of the organism which need exercise. Often the larger the organization the greater the routine, and the Army is a large organization.

In discussions of personality and emotional adjustment, "integration" is still a helpful term if used to designate the organization of experience, attitude, hopes, and efforts around a central drive. Habits, attitudes, and patterns develop without conscious reflection—relative to physical, mental, or emotional behavior. One lives largely by habit until a situation arises for which habit does not suffice. Confusion and anxiety arise when familiar activity is cut off. In such a crisis some people think; some behave like frustrated rats.

For most youth induction into the Army constitutes a crisis. Some youth will then think or experiment and develop a new organization of experience, others will be confused and frustrated. Good examples of the first group make well-adjusted soldiers, extremes of the latter group fill the psychopathic wards.

Emotional stability is related to morale. Morale and stability may be developed through understanding the war crisis in which the youth finds himself. Before there is likelihood of the inductee coming home on furlough, convalescing from battle wounds, or being confined in an enemy prison camp, he will often ask what we are *really* fighting for, whether those in camp are goats while others enjoy home life, whether our Allies are as good, or the Axis as bad as we are told, what he personally is "going to get out of it," and the like. Such questions are not answered by glamor, flag waving, or parades. The question of motive thus arises—a justification for what youth must undergo.

Temporary fervor can be quickly whipped up by martial music, inflamed oratory, and propagandizing pictures, but when hardship appears such fervor withers as rapidly as it grew. Enduring morale and emotional stability in affiliation to a cause must rest on facts that are understandably presented, that make sense however they may be inter-related, and that point inevitably to the advertised aims of war and the proclaimed ideals of democracy. Hence effort of high schools to enlighten youth regarding ideological issues of war must present both critical and favorable evidence, otherwise skepticism arises when the going gets hard.

Alert youth might raise questions concerning any field of interest. Some fields, however, will more often than others constitute bases of skepticism, and the helpfulness of the school may vary among these fields. The interests examined here are: (1) ideological considerations, (2) postwar economic outlook, (3) welfare of parental home and family, (4) sweethearts during the war, and (5) likelihood of getting killed in war.

IDEOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ideological considerations seem most widely heralded by newspapers and other avenues of mass impression. Hence one might begin with such considerations—not because they seem most important to youth who view their immediate futures, but because of familiarity to educators and others concerned with the personality and morale of young will-be soldiers. Among the ramifications of ideology which might be discussed, the following will be considered: (a) "freedom of speech and religion, and freedom from want and fear," (b) superior and inferior races and cultures, (c) status of the sexes in society, and (d) the governing and the governed.

Freedom of speech and religion and freedom from want and fear—

These freedoms, as most things in human relationships, are relatives. Hence the teaching approach is to use data revealing degrees of freedom and restriction. In criticizing the strangle hold of the Gestapo on communicating ideas, enough fact must be presented to contrast it with our own censorship of news—and questions regarding our censorship must be answered, not evaded. The same applies to religion. In attacking Nazi handling of churches and religious personnel, we must note that some religious groups in America have been denied equality before the law—in Colonial and in recent times. In both Germany and the United States religious groups in question have been considered enemies of the state—the prevailing social order. Hence one must inquire further into the particular aspects of religious practices which were offensive in each case. The reasons for attack in the two countries should then be resolved into the general ideologies concerned.

Freedom from fear seems to mean freedom from uncertainty concerning when and where outlaws or the police will strike—uncertainty because of no written guarantees which are enforced and respected by the powers in control and to which individuals can look to determine their rights and duties. Illustrative material can be drawn from American lynching scenes, from the bribing of public officials by criminals, from “hiring” votes and “buying” public office, or from “shake-downs” and bought exemptions from laws concerning vice rings. Whatever characteristics such outlawry in America has in common with Nazi rule, differences can be pointed out to youth concerning the scope of such activity and concerning the ideal under fascism and under democracy—outlaw activity *versus* accepted practice. The relationship between the emergence of corruptions of the kind suggested, and indifference to social and political responsibility on the part of individuals, should also constitute teaching material. Freedom from want is closely related to subsequent economic considerations.

Superior and inferior races and cultures—Any group emphasizing inherent racial inferiority and superiority places itself at the top. High-school teachers can give youth objective data from psychology, anthropology, or ethnology, which show that among individuals of each race biological differences in mental capacity or in other indexes of quality appear to exist, but that it is inaccurate to speak of entire racial groups as being inherently inferior or superior.¹ Illustrations can be drawn from immigration to the United States and subsequent biological mixing, especially in industrial centers. The teacher must be realistic, however, concerning social tolerance regarding newly arrived immigrants, or in particular states regarding Negroes, Mexicans, or Orientals. The teacher should not neglect lessons concerning racial tolerance that might be learned from Russia.

¹Benedict, Ruth, and Ellis, Mildred. *Race and Cultural Relations*. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals. 1942. 60 pp. 30c.

Status of the sexes in society—In the long run the society is most progressive which allows the greatest opportunity to each member to develop his capacities—regardless of race, religion, sex, or economic status. The differentiations and prejudices which now relate to each of these characteristics, are in some countries less intense than in the past and in some countries more intense. In a broad sense the United Nations belong in the first category and the Axis Nations in the second. The role of different groups in running affairs of state is one index of relative status of groups. Relative status of different members within a family, however, may in a particular society be more important in reflecting sex status than prominence in affairs of state. Thus it is urged that through their role in the family, Chinese women exert a directive influence in Chinese society which is not sensed by occidentals. However, a society that orients its social philosophy around the capacity to exercise physical force, logically discounts individuals or groups which are unable to exert much force of that kind. Yet if one criticizes Nazi society for granting a relatively low status to women, he should not veil the fact that tremendous variations in this respect exist among the United Nations. Neither should he overlook the possibility that the expansion of rights and privileges of a particular group in a given society may be faster than the corresponding expansion of responsibilities. Thus in America the burdens of the present international emergency seem to fall much more heavily on the men than on the women, although some of the ideals at stake are of greater immediate importance to women than to men. The theme to emphasize is that equality of rights and of responsibilities among individuals of different sex, racial, religious, and economic groups develops the most progressive society—in the long run. Only free and trained minds can create.

The governing and the governed—Within the individual and among individuals, freedom and discipline must be harmonized. The individual who exercises no discipline regarding appetites and ambitions—food, sex, drink, domination of others and the like—soon dissipates his physical resources and loses the capacity to enjoy other persons. When dissipating, exploitive, and selfish characteristics develop, communities must regulate human relationships. However, anyone familiar with school teaching, training institutions for delinquents, or the operation of a police force knows the limitations of regulating, systematizing, and stereotyping. Regulation and system develop habit—the values and shortcomings of which have been noted. The thesis here is that the average person lives a more significant and satisfying life if he is able and allowed to make decisions and to exercise imagination, than if life consists of obeying regulations and orders from others. When projected on the social group or nation, the foregoing statement means that the national group which is most invigorating and most capable of contributing to the development of civilization is the one in which the masses have the *oppor-*

tunity and *responsibility* for developing and exercising imagination and judgment. This means that everybody is allowed and feels himself *impelled* to help make the regulations for governing himself and everybody else, not that there shall be *governing classes* and *governed masses*.

The teacher of the prospective Army inductee should be able to expand and illustrate the foregoing justification for the democratic principle of government. The teacher should be able to show that among the different United Nations there are wide variations concerning the extent to which the foregoing principle is understood and practiced, as there are wide variations among our United States, and to show why Americans can hardly expect that all members of the United Nations will look upon democracy as meaning exactly what our leading governmental officials at a particular time might expound. Certainly in the past our own notions of American democracy have changed under the impact of varying influences. Hence we might expect people with different social heritages and under different social pressures to have different ideas about democracy. It should be projected to the youth as a hope that closer contacts and greater enlightenment and mutual tolerance of each other, henceforth, will gradually produce greater similarity of views—with changes in our own views and institutions as well as in those of other countries. In holding to the idea of freedom for imagination and judgment on the part of the masses, and opportunity plus responsibility for each individual concerning social regulation and government, the teacher must show that there might be different types of governmental machinery developed in different parts of the world to achieve these ends. With teachings in civics following the lines suggested, the youth can see important differences between fascist and democratic nations concerning the relationship of the individual to the state. When he understands the differences, we need not worry about his choice.

POSTWAR ECONOMIC OUTLOOK

Possibilities for a high material culture must be evaluated in such terms as size and composition of the population, available natural resources, level of technology, predominating philosophy of values, and confidence in human capacity to realize desired aims. A nation with many old folks and children, because wars or outward migration reduces the vigorous adult population, is less able to produce materially than a nation with many young adults. Sex ratio within the adult population is also important.

Natural resources are essential to material production—coal and iron are essential for skyscrapers and automobiles. The kind of material which constitutes a resource at a particular time, however, depends on technology. Coal and iron were in America when the Indians controlled the land, but the Indians did not know how to use them. Hence these items were not

resources for the Indians. The same thought applies to many elements in the earth and air which we at present do not know how to use. With more attention to industrial chemistry, there need be less attention to the possession of particular natural resource areas. The important point for high-school youth is that the term "natural resource" is relative—an item may be a limiting resource at one time and be unimportant from that standpoint at another time.

Important too from the natural resource standpoint is the emphasis placed on satisfactions derived from material goods, in contrast with those derived from intangible sources. After one has satisfied the needs for a healthy organism, the things which he finds satisfying or *thinks he needs* depend largely on education and social conditioning.

We are told that America consumes much in material goods—much relative to other countries, and that we might stress satisfactions from less tangible sources. Many of the high-school youth who are being inducted into the Army, however, come from homes *which they think* are meagerly equipped from the material standpoint. In addition, much of their experience while in the Army stimulates rather than decreases their interest in material welfare. Hence they will be asking what vocational and economic opportunity postwar America will offer them. Will girls, and boys not called to the Army, continue their education or otherwise become qualified or for other reasons be in possession of the good jobs and professional opportunities? Will everybody be worn out and burdened with grief and debt, and hence unable or indisposed to make a potent attack on problems of reconstruction? Is anything being done regarding postwar vocational possibilities, or is this field drifting as during other wars? Will the returned soldier have to stand in a bread line when he is through standing at attention? It would contribute substantially to the moral and emotional stability of youth about to enter the Army if teachers could present a factual basis for satisfying answers to such questions as these.

WELFARE OF PARENTAL HOME AND FAMILY

Several anxieties might arise in a youth concerning his parents or brothers and sisters. Home folks might get sick or die while he is away. Vital statistics, however, can reveal the annual death rate among persons of corresponding ages, whether the youth of the family are at home or not. Anxiety that home folks will not have enough to eat could be similarly handled, through data on rationing—here and abroad. Maybe the home town will be bombed. What do military authorities consider to be the likelihood? What are the probabilities that the youth, if at home during a bombing, could make a contribution that could not be made by community defense agencies? If parents tend to worry about their sons who enter the Army, the sons can

reduce the worry by assuring parents that the sons will avoid major acts of foolishness and indiscretion. Here youth need a realistic explanation of the avenues of foolishness and indiscretion that will invite them. Schools could show youth how to teach parents what the probabilities are that a soldier will experience misfortune at the hands of the enemy. Stress on the tie-up between welfare of his family and welfare of the nation seems here most promising, with this national-local tie-up illustrated through such developments as relate to home loans, flood control, banking stability, employment possibilities, or the price of foodstuffs.

Youth who have close home ties will find adjustment to Army life difficult from the standpoint of concern over family welfare. Some observers think such youth need to be weaned from the family and to have their horizons broadened so they are less dependent on local attachments. Other observers emphasize the emotional satisfaction and stability that the youth might draw from these attachments—from feeling that there is one small circle in a confused world where people know and accept him. It is not the aim here to evaluate the two views, but to suggest that teachers should be alert to both views and be able to help a particular youth orient his background so as to promote his emotional stability when he is inducted into the Army.

SWEETHEARTS DURING THE WAR

Many youth who enter the Army have anxieties concerning sweethearts back home. This is not saying that girls are free from anxieties, although fox holes offer meager inducements for romance, but it is recalling that consideration here relates to youth who "go off to war"—granting that those at home also have problems.

In regard to sexual experience and promiscuity among youth there are few data. Nevertheless, reports from juvenile courts and other agencies for readjusting delinquent youth are helpful. In this connection perhaps more than in most others a youth has difficulty in orienting the lessons of case studies and statistics on his own situation. Circumstances revealed by studies as leading to delinquency, however, can be made understandable to a youth as bearing on the likelihood of delinquency in a particular instance—likelihood as related to ideals, past habits, home life, vocation, unoccupied time, available inducements, suspicions, and similar conditions.

In the field of romance and fidelity an approach might be helpful which is different from that suggested in earlier connections. Youth can be shown that in human relationships much depends on mutual trust; that this is true in domestic relationships within the home, in commercial or professional relationships within the community, or in international political relationships. Hitler's failure to keep his promises and to engender trust—regarding his own people, small neighboring countries, or remote nations—was a factor in

the war. A teacher could readily find material illustrating the importance of trust among public officials or business men who have been repudiated because they proved unworthy of trust—*e.g.*, bank failures. Thus if one expects others to trust and help him, he must trust and help others. Mutual trust and its reflection through rapport are thus cornerstones of friendships and family ties.

Sentiments and attachments such as those just mentioned can be oriented more specifically on romance and sexual promiscuity. There seems a limit to the number of close personal friends that any one individual can have. One who pretends such friendship to all whom he meets, engenders the feeling that his friendship is spread thin—that when needed he could not be counted on as a friend. If most of a person's friendships are of this superficial politician character, he develops attitudes and habits which gradually, although imperceptibly, make him incapable of friendships which hold through tribulations. The various relationships of romance can become superficial and transient as thus suggested. Prostitution is often considered an extreme form of superficiality. The orienting note is that persons who thus become superficial are the losers because they lose the capacity for significant friendships and ties which must be based on sincerity and rapport. Every youth of military age has had enough experience with people to enable him to differentiate between sincere, close friendships and those of the superficial type characterized. In our society final decision must of course rest with the individual youth because there is no civilized way to take it from him, but orientation should help him decide intelligently.

Anxiety lest the girl friend marry some other man while the youth himself is in the Army, seems a more advanced form of the situation described. Conversely, anxiety lest the girl friend fail to write regularly during one's absence seems a less advanced form. Both forms, however, can be resolved by the pattern suggested.

Married youth have somewhat the same anxieties as those described, depending in part on how long they have been married, the birth of children to the marriage, work and living conditions of the wife, and like circumstances. But since most of the youth here considered are not married and since space is limited, detailed consideration will not be given to married youth.

WHAT IF I GET KILLED

Any soldier who is thoughtful enough to give a good account of himself in a tight place is reflective enough to think over the possibilities of his being killed during the war. The drive to want to live is powerful in healthy youth, although it may be conditioned by Army life. It has been said that fear of death produces religions which promise immortality, and causes practical-minded men to erect monuments, write books, and found institutions which

project beyond death a remembrance of themselves. Regardless of what critics might say concerning the values thus acclaimed for religion or for monuments, many persons have been comforted by such projected values—have avoided much despair as they felt death approaching, because they did not feel that death completely obliterated them.

Many youth, however, who feel that death may be waiting to shake their hands as the war advances, regard the foregoing view as superstitious. They conclude that life *may be* short and the smart thing to do is to *have a good time while it lasts*. One even hears "substantial" family men in their middle thirties, employed in defense industry, comment that if they thought they were about to be shipped off to Africa to be shot at they would not be at all interested in "improving their minds" but in having a good time.

A point often overlooked by a person under the emotional disturbance suggested, is that he *may not* be killed—that he may return to peaceful life, and have to live for many years with the habits, attitudes, and physical equipment that he brings back with him. Perhaps the individual should ask, "What if I don't get killed, after I get all set for it!"

On the basis of statistics from the last war, youth can be shown something of the probabilities of being killed and of returning without permanent disability. Such a presentation could do much to place a particular youth on an objective basis regarding his future during the war and subsequently. Through newspapers, radio, and kinfolk, youth can be unduly impressed with the idea that they will not come back. This idea can do much to influence the stability and behavior of youth while away. If objective data can show a youth that the likelihood of his returning is considerably greater than the likelihood of his not returning, he will be influenced more by the prospects of what lies beyond the war and less by regimented Army life.

The school can show youth that there are two major avenues through which his life while in the Army will live on with him after the war: (1) reputation and record of performance on and off duty; (2) physical and mental habits, and biological changes in the organism. Youth can be shown that when the Army evaluates the candidates who apply for commissions, much information concerning the applicant's past activities and achievements is sought. The same is true in regard to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, to most aspects of the civil service, to most universities seeking faculty members, to many commercial firms, to insurance companies evaluating applications, and other agencies. Thus a youth who aspires to postwar employment in any of the more responsible areas of our social order, should know that reputation and past activities are considered important in predicting future behavior.

Reputation might be thought of as the framework of one's status in the community—the behavior expectations and evaluations on the part of the

community. Habit and biological structure can be thought of as behavior patterns and capacities within the individual organism. Habits which characterize one's alertness; co-operation; optimism; self-discipline; recreation; intellectual interests; food and drink; contacts with superiors, equals, or inferiors—are carried over in varying degree into postwar life. The same may be true of illness, dissipation, or similar experiences affecting the organism.

Moreover, in any crisis the individual who is most likely to survive is the one who has a reserve of energy and who is mentally alert, emotionally stable, and physically healthy. Persons with the foregoing characteristics are less likely to succumb to illness, to fall into the traps of enemies, or to crack up emotionally at a critical moment. A person who is alert and who has the kind of background that generates well-grounded imagination—whether in wartime Africa or New Guinea or in peacetime industry or family life—is most likely to adjust to the situation. It might be urged that the kind of imagination that high schools develop through such studies as physics, dramatics, or agriculture does not help much in dodging tank attacks, evading jungle snakes, or maneuvering pursuit planes. In any of these instances, however, the youth who has the attitude that there is a way out—a generalized attitude—is more likely to find a way than the youth who merely waits, in complacency or in panic. How extensively a teacher will be able to help youth generalize such traits as alertness, sound imagination, or willingness to sacrifice immediate pleasures in order better to withstand future struggle, will depend greatly on the scope of experience and imagination of the teacher.

The foregoing comments are in no sense intended to belittle the importance of factual information gained through wartime courses in the curriculum, but to indicate that the alert teacher should be able to orient these facts into such generalized implications as are reflected by the traits characterized, and to show the youth that his chances of survival during struggle are greater when his daily living develops and maintains such traits than when he leads an opposing type of life.

CONCLUSION

Areas other than those noted could obviously be explored from the standpoint of their relationship to morale and emotional stability of youth about to enter the Army. It is hoped, however, that areas used have illustrative value. If it is recognized that any area of human interest might become a basis of anxiety and emotional upset in a youth whose personality is more or less uprooted, the important thing is what the high school can do about it. There should be little doubt concerning the value of an up-to-date secondary school in areas such as those illustrated. The extent to which the school can explore different areas of inductee anxiety depends somewhat on the facilities of the school plant but more on the experience and imagination of the staff.

A Work Experience Program

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IF I HAD only known what work was going to be like, I would have had an entirely different attitude in school." Frequently we hear a complaint of this kind from returning high-school graduates. The School-Work Program helps to provide an answer to such a situation.

Last fall Philadelphia schools began programs which aimed at the integration of school and work experience. The idea of combining school and work was not new in Philadelphia. Many years ago co-operative programs were in operation in several high schools. The vocational schools have also used variations of the co-operative plan. In 1941 the Distributive Education Program was introduced and in 1943 came the development of the Agricultural Program. The first of these unites commercial studies with actual participation in the distributive processes of industry; the second aims to restore in a metropolitan area a neglected aspect of human interest and endeavor. All of these plans were alike in that they restricted employment to occupations related to the training. They also, with the exception of the Agricultural Program, limited the employment to the last year of the course.

The development which began last fall differed from these preceding plans in that it recognized a more general value in work experience and did not necessarily restrict employment to occupations directly related to any course or subject taken in school. It also admitted employment to the program prior to the last year of the course.

For some years there has been an alternation between class work and employment in certain colleges or technical schools of this country, as for instance, Antioch College, the University of Akron, the University of Cincinnati, Georgia Tech., and the Drexel Institute of Technology in Philadelphia. It is found that under such an arrangement pupils encounter technical and psychological work problems while they are still in a position to benefit from a teacher's instruction and counsel. The "break" from school to industry occurs gradually and school and employer are brought into helpful contact. There is much to be said for such a system, when the follow-up is properly managed.

In the Philadelphia schools the School-Work Program is now a going concern. While it is still in a somewhat tentative stage, the experiences already met in its progress may be not without a certain interest. Emergency conditions in the labor market, with their abundant and tempting opportunities for full-time or part-time employment of school-age youth, have made the initiation of the program a matter of no great difficulty.

Under the regulations of this program come: (1) All pupils for whom

the school has made arrangements to grant school credit for work experience upon the satisfactory completion of an approved period of employment. This may or may not involve any curtailment of the regular program. (2) All pupils, who for the purpose of allowing employment are rostered in fewer periods than would otherwise have been approved. (3) All pupils in the Distributive Education Program, who are in the apprentice stage of their practical association with business.

PROCEDURE

It has been found necessary to place several restrictions on the present project to make sure that it really affords legitimate educational experience. At the outset, descriptions of the School-Work Program are made available to parents. There is an interview between the supervisor of the project and the parent, or at least written consent from the parent if any curtailment of the pupil's school schedule or "roster" is involved. A special form of application for employment has to be filled out, and a letter from the employer is placed on file. A careful record of each pupil's work experience is preserved. The information included therein must at all times be kept up to date. Before employment can be permitted, a school representative must visit the place of prospective employment to make sure that it fulfills certain specified requirements. Every week the employer signs a work-time record for each pupil who has been released from school-time. In addition to this, an evaluating report is returned by the employer once in each period covered by the school report. Visits by a supervisory official are made as often as is felt necessary. All these precautions are essential if the work experience is to become a really productive factor in the pupil's education.

Two types of School-Work Program have been developed so far. Under "Individual Roster Adjustment" an effort is made to rearrange pupils' rosters so that their school schedules are not greatly reduced. This is done chiefly to help pupils stay in school. It proves quite adequate for the needs of pupils in the twelfth year who have accumulated most of the credits necessary for graduation. This method can hardly be applied, however, in the case of pupils in the lower classes.

The other method is used for unit groups with "Block Rosters." Here the pupils are scheduled together for their major subjects and become a definite unit within the school. However, they join pupils from other courses for physical education and electives. After the initial reorganization has been accomplished, this method has many advantages. It reduces the number of conflicts in the school program; it lends itself to the development of new and vital curriculum material drawn from the work experience of the pupils and adapted to their needs; it develops in the group a feeling of importance and a sense of belonging to a respected and important school unit; and it releases



William Penn High-School Students Work on School-Work Program at the Federal Reserve Bank, Philadelphia, thus securing valuable work experience as well as pay.

teacher time for the necessary field work in supervision and follow-up to places of employment.

Since employment integrated with the school program can become a constructive experience for any pupil, the School-Work Program need not be restricted to any particular group or type of youth. In all curriculums except the academic, a certain amount of school time may be replaced by work experience without retarding the date of graduation. This does not mean that academic pupils cannot be rostered on a school-work basis, but that no subjects essential for college entrance should be omitted from their rosters.

Certainly a declared intention to leave school before graduation should not become a prerequisite for admission to the school-work group. The pupils who will profit most from this program, are those who will carry on with it to graduation. Neither should it be assumed that the retarded or backward pupil should be given work experience simply because he is not making progress in the school. The decision to include work experience in any pupil's educational program must be made on a counseling basis with careful consideration for the general development and welfare of the pupil.

RESTRICTIONS

Legislation controlling the employment of minors has placed restrictions which must be remembered in assigning a pupil to the School-Work Program. The opportunities for the employment of youth under sixteen years of age during any part of the regular school day is limited to a narrow field of operations, principally in retail stores which do not engage in interstate commerce, and in service establishments. These regulatory measures are based

upon the chronological age of youth and do not—and perhaps cannot—provide for individual differences in the physical, mental, and social development of young people. There are unquestionably many boys and girls under sixteen who might profit by combined school and work experience, but who cannot be given this opportunity. It is not likely to be a serious problem with pupils fourteen years of age, who, except in rare instances, should undoubtedly remain in the regular school classes.

There is a much more difficult situation in respect to pupils who are approaching sixteen. For large numbers of pupils this is a period of great unrest, during which those who have not been satisfactorily adjusted to school are making plans to leave on their sixteenth birthday. Many of these boys and girls, if they could be placed on an integrated School-Work Plan, could satisfy their desire to work, and might find new interest in continuing their schooling. However, the employment opportunities for these pupils are limited to a narrow range of occupations permitted by law, a number of which are not suitable for a School-Work Program.

TYPES OF WORK EXPERIENCE

This brings us to the question of what kinds of employment will be suitable for work of this kind. In the first place such work must conform to state and Federal regulations governing the employment of minors. The hours of employment must be reviewed with a careful estimate of the combined day of school and work, with due allowance for necessary traveling to and from. The total hours of work and school should be limited to an amount that the pupil can employ satisfactorily. Stability of employment is very desirable. Positions which are highly seasonal or unpredictably irregular in nature are unsatisfactory for a long-term program, and should be accepted only by special arrangement.

Employment should involve real work-situations. It is very desirable that school-work jobs be in line with the youth's vocational objectives. It is quite probable, however, that this will frequently be impossible, and it should not be considered imperative. Jobs which offer experience nearly related to school work are most satisfactory for integration with the school program. However, it should not be assumed that employment should be strictly parallel with a course or subject taken in school. Where work has a definite experience value that may form a subject of discussion in the school itself, or where it contributes to an acquisition of trade knowledge or skill, or to a knowledge of merchandise, business practice, the development of good work habits, or experience in working with the adult community, it may be assumed, in the absence of evidence to the contrary, that such work will have "shop" value or "office-practice" value in terms of the school curriculum. It is per-

Type of Employment	Curriculum ¹					Total
	Academic	Commercial	Industrial	Mechanic Arts	Home Economics	
Machine Tool Operator			17	2		19
Assembler, Repair						
Mechanic, Machine Installation			7			7
Apprentice, Trainee, Helper, Learner		2	11	2		15
Clerical, Stock-Clerk, Checker, Cashier, Typist, Filing-Clerk	1	7	14	1	1	24
Service Occupations, Sales, Waitress, etc.	3	3			1	7
Unskilled, Newsboy, Messenger, Delivery Mail	1	3	5	2		11
Laborer, Trucker, Loader, Racker	3	3	20			26
Miscellaneous		3	4			7
TOTAL	8	21	78	7	2	116

¹For purpose of comparison the total enrollment in these courses is appended: Academic, 510; Commercial, 988; Industrial, 701; Mechanic Arts, 244; Home Economics, 125.

haps needless to add that employment conditions must be such as will safeguard the safety, health, and morals of the pupil.

THE EXTENT OF THE PROGRAM

As part of the Philadelphia School-Work Program, which has its own administrative staff, a number of case studies have been compiled after conference with principals, school counselors, and employers. These show benefits from the program such as the following: (1) increased desire to attend school when continuance in a paying job may hinge on it; (2) greater interest in accuracy when the pupil finds that business demands it; (3) greater attention to subjects like shop arithmetic when practical work requires it; (4) an added sense of security, of "belonging" to what is going on in the world; (5) increased ability to talk to and "get along" with people; (6) a more vivid sense of the necessity of self-support; (7) in general, a greater awareness of the importance of diligence and co-operation.

Postwar Education for Teen-Age War Workers

FRANCIS L. BACON

Superintendent, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois

THE GREATEST employment adjustment in history will confront us in the postwar period. It is estimated that over 25,000,000 persons will need to make some occupational change when the war ends.

At the present time, there are approximately:

14,000,000 in the armed services.

18,000,000 in war-production pursuits. (Few of these pursuits are essential or suitable for peace.)

10,000,000 men and women engaged in non-war pursuits who have shifted to war service or to war production.

5,000,000 young married women in war production.

6,000,000 who have dropped out of school in the past three years to accept jobs.

While it is true that not all of these millions of men and women will be available for or will desire employment after the war, yet all of them who wish to work will have to make some kind of occupational adjustment. There will be unprecedented competition between returned veterans and war-production workers and civilians who took positions only because of the pressure of war; between those whose education has been interrupted and the high-school or college graduates; between men and families and young married women; and between those willing to accept lower wages and those who believe that war wages must be maintained even at the cost of strikes. And the longer the war lasts, the more intense and complex will become the problem of occupational readjustment.

The problem of the returning veteran is receiving nation-wide attention, as it should. Bills have been passed in the 78th Congress providing for educational opportunities, special training, and rehabilitation of all veterans who have no position to which they can return. A compromise Bill providing job insurance will unquestionably be passed in the near future.

Already about 1,500,000 men have been discharged from the armed services, and there is now a continuous flow of returning veterans. Many of them are wounded, shell shocked, or otherwise disabled. Opportunities for these men to fit into jobs, or some form of rehabilitation is extremely important not only for the men themselves, but as a means of valuable experiment in perfecting plans and techniques for the handling of the whole situation following the war.

Our veterans will be provided, and justifiably so, with what will be tantamount to a "G. I. Bill of Rights," or Public Law 346. This law is discussed on other pages of the current issue of *The Bulletin*.

THE IMMEDIATE PROBLEM FOR SCHOOLS

The immediate problem which the secondary schools should attack, therefore, is not that of the returning veterans, but of the teen-age war workers whose education has been interrupted to join the war-production fight. This is a real problem.

The problem of the 6,000,000 youngsters who went to work before they finished high school should be receiving nation-wide attention. What is going to happen to them?

Normally, most of them would have completed their high-school education, gone on to college, or received special vocational training. The few, whom economic pressure might have forced to seek positions earlier, would have completed their high-school courses, and probably some special training, in part-time or evening schools. The very nominal wages which they would have received under peacetime conditions would have stimulated them to further study in the hope of increased opportunity.

But under wartime conditions—with the insatiable hunger of our war-production plants for more and more manpower—these inexperienced, untrained boys and girls have been earning high wages, have received highly specialized forms of training, and have matured beyond their years—certainly beyond their school-day years. These young home-front casualties will find it difficult to readjust themselves to school life and yet they are totally unprepared for postwar job competition. Further education and training is essential to prepare them adequately for the business or industrial world and to take their rightful place as educated Americans in their respective communities. Definite plans should be made now by school administrators to stimulate a desire for this further training.

RESPONSIBILITY OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS

The high schools should, first of all, establish adequate guidance services which will be readily available to all youth who have not finished high school. Contacts of many different kinds will need to be made if the out-of-school youth are to be properly reached.

The usual system of credit evaluation will break down. Much flexibility of interpretation and decision must follow. Individual needs and conditions will necessarily be largely the determinants.

For youth who have been at work, a flexible curriculum will be essential even though these curriculum adjustments may be difficult to make. Different courses may have to be offered because many of these returning students will need to be more nearly on the college or adult level rather than on the typical high-school level. For all of these new arrangements, practical guidance service will have to provide information and counsel.

The school itself, as well as the guidance bureau, should consider inaugurating a department of public relations, for such a postwar educational plan must be widely and attractively publicized in order that out-of-school youth may be convinced that these renewed educational opportunities will be indispensable to them in shaping their future lives.

If these opportunities are properly presented and our youth return to the classrooms, they need not fear vain and bitter competition with veterans, nor be disturbed by inevitable changes in their economic status. Properly sponsored, this postwar educational plan will have more appeal than efforts to maintain artificial, wartime wage levels, which will involve a highly competitive, and probably vain, struggle for jobs.

CURRICULUM CHANGES AND NEW SCHOOLS

In some cases, junior colleges or special new organizations of a technical character will be needed; others will require special extension courses of a co-operative nature; still others will find it helpful to have late afternoon or evening courses.

New forms of vocational education to aid in the giving of short, specialized preparatory or refresher courses will be especially desirable.

Existing vocational schools have given successfully special training for war work to more than 9,000,000 persons during the war to date. This fact holds out great promise for postwar training.

Many schools will need to be enlarged and, to some extent, newly equipped; others must add vocational departments. Townships and states will find it advisable to consider district, regional, and state vocational schools.

The new forms of secondary education, wherever organized, should be motivated largely by the needs of mature youth and adults if they are to be immediately effective in occupational adjustments. Old patterns must not be allowed to strangle the opportunities for retraining, for occupational readjustment, and for placement.

In many schools, new bureaus for occupational testing and placement will become extremely important services.

FEDERAL AND STATE AID NEEDED

The cost of the education of veterans is already planned and provided for by the Federal government. The expansion of vocational schools, which can and should be a large part of the new program, will be carried by the established plan of government aid through such *media* as the Smith-Hughes and George-Deen funds.

The reorganized secondary schools, necessary to the proper functioning of the plans proposed for the occupational readjustment of youth, undoubtedly will require state and Federal aid. Many states now have large surpluses which

could be used for postwar education and employment. Federal aid, already widely employed, could be justified more easily in the development of the proposed programs, through regular school agencies, than for temporary and confused attempts which will surely follow if there is no advanced planning.

To avoid duplication and uncertainty of administration, Federal agencies and state departments of education should co-operate in planning a well coordinated program. The use of the permanent educational agencies of the states and of the local communities as the means of control would seem to be paramount.

No limited or restricted concept of postwar education and of rehabilitation will be sufficient to meet the total problem of occupational readjustment.

Are you planning for postwar education?

**Have you seen the report
of the Planning Committee
of the**

National Association of Secondary-School Principals?

PLANNING FOR AMERICAN YOUTH

**An Educational Program for Youth
of Secondary-School Age**

This 64-page pamphlet, colorfully illustrated, two years in preparation by outstanding educators, based on the recent publication of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, **Education for All American Youth**, should be used extensively in every community for the development of a better program of education for school youth.

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**National Association of Secondary-School Principals
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.**

ORDERS RECEIVED NOW

Supervision in the Small Secondary School

JOHN H. STARIE

Headmaster, Madison High School, Madison, New Hampshire

THE PROBLEM of effective supervision by the teaching principal of a small high school is one that most textbooks ignore. Yet the need for it is acute, particularly in sparsely settled rural areas where the superintendent is forced to spend much of his time with a multitude of one-room elementary schools. In such high schools teachers are likely to be fledglings, for whom positive supervision is an urgent necessity. Principals of such schools are usually themselves young and inexperienced in educational leadership; for them this practice becomes the main road to professional growth. In many instances, however, the pressure of teaching and maintaining study halls makes it difficult for them to do more than quell an occasional disturbance.

In such a school and with such a problem the writer found himself during his first year as principal. The teacher involved was a college graduate with a minimum training in education. Having a charming personality and the novelty of a city girl set down in a country town, she attracted the pupils and had little difficulty in the early weeks. Soon, however, she began to lose all control of her classes. Increasingly, the noise and confusion of her room made it apparent that little education was in progress.

As three different superintendents were in charge of the Union during the first semester, little help in training teachers could come from that quarter. So the problem lay squarely before the principal: he had to supervise or see his school disintegrate.

CONSIDERING THE PROBLEM

Two difficulties were in the way; his own full teaching schedule and his lack of experience in showing teachers how to teach. Obviously his first problem was himself.

Careful planning of his own teaching enabled him to be out of his classroom for many periods without too much loss to his pupils. Many of these visits were of short duration. Indeed, sometimes he found a glance through a glazed door as instructive as a prolonged observation, while occasionally the sounds coming through the thin walls gave evidence all too clearly as to the type of activity going on within the room. Yet, whenever time permitted, longer observations allowed a study of the teacher herself. Every observation, however short, was based on three questions: What is the activity? What is the purpose behind it? Is the activity promoting educational growth? Thus the principal found it possible to observe and teach at the same time.

The second difficulty entailed learning by doing, supplementing observations by intensive study of the literature on supervision and interviews with

more experienced supervisors. The most stimulating of all books he read was Briggs' *Improving Instruction*.¹

Preliminary observations of the teacher while this study was in progress revealed that she simply did not know how to teach. Bewildered by the negative response to her poor methods, she had lost confidence in her ability; her voice became shrill and her pupils antagonistic. Only one hopeful sign emerged—she was aware of failure and eager to receive help.

Following these preliminary observations, which occupied several weeks, her problem was carefully analyzed in the light of her background and character. This written analysis revealed the main faults to be lack of training in methods, insufficient development of the purposes behind her teaching, monotonous classroom procedures, and lack of skill in leading discussion or asking questions.

After this analysis came the planning of attack. Concentration upon a few objectives seemed more desirable than scattered remarks, and since one of these was to be the "purposes of teaching," it behooved the principal to analyze his own quite carefully.

As a part of this planning it was necessary to review the available literature on classroom methods, supplementing the meager resources of the school with books from the state and university libraries. Some of these were later suggested to the teacher. However, the temptation to overburden her with reading was carefully avoided.

At this point the writer conferred frequently with the superintendent. These conferences served to unify the work of both, to create a pool of suggestions and techniques, and to keep the principal in step with current supervisory philosophy.

The fourth stage naturally involved working directly with the teacher. In conferences scattered over a period of several weeks two purposes were kept in mind. First, to win her confidence and help her realize her own weaknesses, and, second, to develop with her certain fundamental procedures. Since she was already aware that she had weaknesses, it was chiefly necessary to show her their nature. The second purpose was developed by first encouraging her to analyze her pupils. When she understood their wide range of abilities and interests, she was naturally receptive to suggestions for dealing with them. Here the contract method of teaching was explained, and she was led to organize units in English and the social studies. After these had been reviewed in conference, and when she seemed to understand the principles of individualizing her techniques, she introduced the units to her classes.

As she had moderate success with this early work, she gained confidence in the method and in the supervision. Consequently later conferences were

¹Briggs, Thomas H. *Improving Instruction, Supervision by Principals of Secondary Schools*. New York: MacMillan. 1938.

marked by her readiness to receive suggestions on other difficulties and to work out their solution.

So that example might follow precept, the principal demonstrated theory by teaching a unit on town government. The teacher introduced him as a specialist in this particular field, so that his real purpose was not apparent to the pupils. By this the principal was able to check his own impressions of that particular class situation, and the teacher saw that effective techniques could stimulate interest and produce results. At the same time she had a period to observe the class from a different point of view.

The final step was a series of observations and conferences to see how well the teacher was applying what she had learned and to locate areas for later concentration. Where the teacher showed improvement she was complimented, sometimes in brief comment and sometimes in formal conferences where she was encouraged to express her own impressions of the methods. By this final step the principal checked the effectiveness of his own work as well as the teacher's improvement.

Throughout the whole period, careful notes were kept in a cumulative file. These included all records pertaining to the teacher, the analysis of her problem, brief notes on observations and conferences, copies of the units that she developed, suggestions by the superintendent and, where possible, the records of his observations and references to material made available to the teacher. In this the principal had an excellent record by which he could see growth taking place and from which he could plan his future work. This file was available to the superintendent before his visits to the teacher, thus making possible harmonious work.

Naturally at the end of the school year the work was not finished, but certain positive results could be seen. They may be summarized as follows:

1. A beginning teacher was saved from a year of complete discouragement and failure.
2. She became receptive to the idea of supervision and will welcome it in the future.
3. Her classes were set on the right track toward educational growth.
4. She realized her need for further training and sought good summer-school courses.
5. Relations with a new teacher, a new principal, and a new superintendent were harmonized by working toward a common goal.
6. The principal himself grew in supervisory experience, in an understanding of the problems of a beginning teacher, and in his own ability to teach.

Certainly these results should justify the extra labor involved in the practice of supervision in the small high school. At least they have convinced one principal of its necessity and encouraged him to plan his work and his time to include more of it another year. Perhaps, too, they should encourage the study of techniques on a broader scale by which the teaching principal may add supervision to his other duties.

Shall We Have Compulsory Peacetime Military Training?

PAUL E. ELICKER

Executive Secretary, National Association of Secondary-School Principals

SOON THERE will come before our Congress, possibly immediately after the national elections or at the beginning of the next session of Congress, the issue of compulsory military peacetime training. The importance of this issue is so far-reaching and will have such a revolutionary effect on our American way of life that the American people ought to weigh seriously the effect of such a legislative measure on the life of our youth and the welfare of our nation.

THE PROPOSED LEGISLATIVE MEASURES

On January 11, 1944, Andrew J. May of Kentucky introduced H. R. 3947 which was referred to the House Military Affairs Committee. H. R. 3947 provides for one year of compulsory military training for every able-bodied male citizen and every alien residing in the United States upon attaining the age of 17 or as soon as he has successfully completed the full course of an accredited high school or preparatory school, *whichever first occurs*. On completion of this year's training, he would become a reservist for eight years subject to additional refresher training according to regulations hereafter promulgated by the President. This Act would become effective upon termination of the present Selective Training and Service Act.

On February 11, 1943, identical bills were introduced in the House and the Senate: S. 701 by Chan Gurney of South Dakota and H. R. 1806 by James W. Wadsworth of New York, known as the National Military Training Acts of 1943. They were referred to their respective Military Affairs Committees.

These bills provide for one year of military or naval training for all male citizens upon attaining the age of 18 or within three years thereafter. On completion of this training, he would become a reservist for four years, subject to additional refresher training. This Act would become effective six months after the end of the war, or earlier, as Congress prescribes.

A third proposal for compulsory military training is implied in H. R. 465, passed by the House on March 28, 1944, and providing for the House Committee on Postwar Military Policy. This Committee is composed of seven members of the House Military Affairs Committee, seven members of the House Naval Affairs Committee, and nine other representatives. The chairman of the Committee is Clifton A. Woodrum of Virginia. This Committee will investigate all matters relating to the postwar military requirements of the United States, gather and study information, plans, and suggestions, and report to the House during the present Congress its findings and conclusions.

In addition to these proposals, it has been revealed in hearings before this Committee that the Army and Navy have agreed upon a plan for universal conscription and that both will urge strongly its adoption.

THE POSITION OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL
ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

In February, 1944, the Association distributed to leaders in secondary education, chiefly officers of the forty-eight state principals' associations, a copy of the May Bill (H. R. 3947) and a questionnaire on the essential provisions of this bill and related items on compulsory military training. The questionnaire and the results obtained from representatives in all the states indicated the following opinion. *It should be noted that this opinion poll was obtained in February, 1944, since when the status of the war has changed.*

1. *Are you in favor of universal military training for all male youth?*
Yes 70.7%; no 28.7%; uncertain 1.6%.
2. *Are you in favor of some form of universal national service of one year (not necessarily military) for all youth, boys and girls?*
Yes 37.9%; no 56.1%; uncertain 6.0%.
3. *If you are in favor of some kind of universal military training for all youth, at what age would you set the time for the beginning of such military training?*
Predominantly in favor of age 18 and not before high-school graduation.
4. *Would you favor use of summers only (one or more in some kind of summer camp under military direction) for such training?*
About equal division of opinion on this issue with many proposals for co-ordination with educational programs.
5. *Would you favor granting to the individual the privilege of selecting a particular year for training within a certain age range?*
Predominantly in favor of age range 17-22.
6. *Do you advise that consideration of legislation regarding universal military training for youth be postponed until close of the war?*
Yes 60%; no 38%; uncertain 2%.

Considering these results, the Executive Committee of the Association, meeting in Cleveland, Ohio, on March 3-6, 1944, expressed itself as favoring the following:

Our nation should not commit itself at this time to a universal military training program, but should have this issue thoroughly discussed by our American people and consider any possible legislative action after the close of the war, when we can consider and plan more intelligently for permanent peacetime measures that will affect the life of our youth.

The essential reasons for such a recommendation are:

1. The present Selective Training and Service Act will provide adequately for the present emergency and there is no apparent or imminent threat of an immediately recurring next war. If so, we have millions of men who are now trained and have experienced the test of combat and who could readily be called to service, without much loss of efficiency and effectiveness

during the period of at least five years after the close of the present war.

2. Men and women now in service and overseas in large number should have the privilege of a voice in determining such long-range and permanent national policy. Such legislation will affect the future of their children.

It must be recalled that during World War I, the iniquitous Prohibition Amendment was enacted by our Congress during the absence of millions of men who were in the service of their country. This Act was later proved to be ill-advised by our American people and eventually repealed.

3. Only when the war is over and when the plans for peace and future security of nations are known and determined, including the international policy on armaments, can we determine fairly and intelligently the need for compulsory peacetime military training.

It can now be added that a great world leader, the British Prime Minister, Winston Churchill, said to the House of Commons on September 28, 1944, in speaking on a national issue for England,

Great decisions can not be taken, even for the transition period, without far closer, calmer, and more searching discussion than can be held amid the clash of arms. Moreover, we can not be blind to the fact that there are many factors at present unknown which will make themselves manifest on the morrow of the destruction of the Nazi regime.

I am sure this is no time for taking a hard and fast and momentous decision on incomplete data and at breakneck speed. Hasty work and premature decisions may lead to penalties out of all proportion to the issues immediately involved.

THE ARGUMENTS FOR COMPULSORY MILITARY TRAINING
AND THE WAY THEY HAVE BEEN ANSWERED

1. Our country would have a trained group for the maintenance of the Army and Navy to police certain parts of the world, to protect itself against aggression, and to prevent future wars.

Voices in reply.—History reveals that nations that have had large armies and compulsory military training were not immune from attack. Germany attacked both France and Russia, both of which had large armies and compulsory military training. Other nations—Poland, Norway, Belgium, the Netherlands, Greece, and Yugoslavia—all had conscription and all were attacked without warning. Strong military preparations are more conducive to sudden surprise attack than a safeguard against it. Every step that a nation takes for its own security, through armed force, decreases the security of its neighbor nation.

2. Military training enhances the health of the nation and provides physical benefits to its youth.

Voices in reply.—Whatever health benefits may accrue to some, the program would not aid those who are in greatest need of it because conscription would include, as the present Selective Training and Service Act, only those that are physically able to participate in military training. Nearly 4,000,000

were classified during the present war as 4-F. Furthermore, it is too late to correct many physical, mental, and emotional defects in youth by waiting until they are 17 or 18. It is proposed that even a portion of the annual cost for military training, which might approximate annually \$1,200 per man, as in the CCC camps, would be more effective for all boys and girls in the development of public and school health programs. The program of military physical fitness is highly specialized for development of physical hardening and for determination of physical stamina and endurance. It is lacking in balance and appropriateness for the individual.

3. Military training would provide needed discipline for our youth and would train them in obedience.

Voices in reply.—Military discipline is authoritarian in method and centralized in control. Obedience is blind obedience and there is no enduring value as is evident by the many breakdowns in discipline when youth are released from the yoke of authority.

Should the Army and Navy assume that they are better qualified than the schools and the homes in the moral upbringing of youth? Discipline without intelligent and purposeful motivation is hazardous. The status of the morale of men in the military camps was very serious in 1940 and before Pearl Harbor; and, in peacetime, there would be less positive and purposeful motivation for service to country and self-preservation of the nation than in wartime.

4. All young men should spend a year in the service of their country to realize the privileges and duties of citizenship.

Voices in reply.—There is no evidence that military training makes better citizens. It is possible that a militaristic program for all youth may lead to something like the blind fanaticism of the average German youth or Japanese soldier. The military camp may be a good place to teach an ideology, but a poor place to develop personal initiative, individual thinking, or an analytical consideration of the problems of a democracy.

Germany, Japan, and even Italy achieved their military fanaticism through indoctrination of youth skillfully applied by means of a highly militarized and totalitarian system for all youth.

5. Military training would inculcate democratic ideals in youth and develop in them patriotism for and loyalty to their country.

Voices in reply.—The Army and Navy are not organized along democratic patterns. Rank and caste play a large part, especially in times of peace. They are mainly interested, and justifiably so, in the power and might of the masses and the military unit. Patriotism and loyalty are virtues and can not be inculcated by legislation or compulsion. Conscription, with a continuing liability for reservist service, gives the government too great a power over individuals. It violates the spirit of the Atlantic Charter, which said "for realistic

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as well as spiritual reasons, the world must come to the abandonment of the use of force," and promised when a general system of security is established "to lighten the crushing burden of armaments."

France in 1940, after one hundred and fifty years of compulsory military training, was a pathetic example of national unity and patriotism.

6. Military training would reduce the number of employable youth and relieve the number of unemployed in normal times.

Voices in reply.—The validity of this argument is granted to a certain degree. However, there would be no cumulative effect after the system of compulsory military training was inaugurated except through a rapid increase each year in the total population of those 17 or 18 years of age. It would seriously handicap needed services of youth on our farms during the summer months. Since the number of unemployed is about 3,000,000 (not including youth) even in our most prosperous times, it would in no way solve our problem of unemployment. Unemployment can be reduced by less costly means.

7. Military training would provide specialized vocational training for youth.

Voices in reply.—Vocational training can be better provided by locally controlled agencies where local vocational needs can be determined.¹ Such a program, Federally controlled, would duplicate local programs and necessitate

^{1/} For plan for education for all American youth, see

Planning for American Youth, 64 pages, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., 1944, 25 cents.

Education for All American Youth, 211 pages, Educational Policies Commission, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., 1944, \$1.00

(Tear out here)

SEE OTHER SIDE

Will you express an opinion on compulsory military training by using the other side of this ballot? Your opinion and your voice on this issue is needed on this important national issue.

MAIL TO: NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
1201 SIXTEENTH STREET, N. W.
WASHINGTON 6, D. C.

duplication of equipment, facilities, and personnel which would be unnecessarily expensive. If the chief purpose is military training, why use several months of the life of a youth to teach him to be an Army truck driver or a Navy typist? It has been shown that basic training in time of war can be given effectively in six to twelve weeks. Why a year of other related training and education under Federal control?

Military training would take a year out of the lives of young men and it would interrupt their plans for a continuous education and preparation for a profession and occupation. Economically, it would interfere with their training and preparation for a productive place in society, thereby postponing marriages and the establishment of homes. We would unintentionally favor the physically inferior youth in our economic and social order by keeping them at home while the youth physically acceptable for military service would be in military camps away from home communities.

The retraining periods of military service would have to be very frequent to keep his military efficiency in tune with the rapidly changing military science and tactics.

THE ISSUES INVOLVED

These issues should be carefully considered by school administrators, teachers, parents, and pupils now. Be acquainted with all aspects of the proposals for compulsory military training so you can act intelligently whenever necessary. Share your view with others, with your senators and congressmen. It is an issue that belongs to the people, and the people should determine the policy for our nation.

(Tear out here and mail)

AN OPINION BALLOT

Do you favor a year of compulsory military training for all male youth after the war?

YES _____ NO _____ UNCERTAIN _____

Do you favor postponement of legislative action on compulsory military training until after the war when the issue can be considered fairly and intelligently as a postwar peacetime measure?

YES _____ NO _____ UNCERTAIN _____

SIGNATURE _____

OFFICIAL EDUCATIONAL POSITION _____

DATE _____ ADDRESS _____

RETURN TO: NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
1201 SIXTEENTH STREET, N. W., WASHINGTON 6, D. C.

Problems Facing Secondary Education Today*

JULIUS E. WARREN

Commissioner of Education for Massachusetts, Boston, Massachusetts.

AN ADOLESCENT is a strange creature somewhere between child and man who is bored by both and understood by neither. He thinks he could be happy if grownups did not conspire against it, and is amazed that persons who went through this stage of life not so long ago could have forgotten it so soon and so completely. They seem to have forgotten that he can't be sure whether the next syllable he utters will be bass or soprano, and that his glands and organs are so busy getting adjusted to certain changes that he is continually beset with an assortment of itches, urges, twinges, pressures, and aches. Physically the adolescent is like a house on moving day—a temporary mess. Emotionally and socially he is in even greater disorder for he has the desires, dreams, and ambitions of a man but lacks the power, the knowledge, and the skill of a man. Before he is a successful man he must learn the arts of courtship, of earning money, of governing himself, of being respected by others, of staying alive in a world of disease and automobiles, and of remaining approximately sane in a world that has reached a new high in opportunities for conflicts, complexity, frustration, and insanity.

Among primitive peoples, the elders of the tribe take a week or two to teach their adolescents the secrets and tricks that they haven't already picked up. By means of some fasting, the knocking out of a few teeth, piercing an ear, or other equally realistic ritual, the importance of becoming a man or woman is duly impressed. In our own civilization, the secondary school is given this job and anywhere from one to six years in which to do it.

It is difficult to find a period in which everyone was quite satisfied with secondary education. It is equally difficult to find a type of education which has been criticized so adversely and so often. This is so partly because no educational system is ever as good as it ought to be, but, for the most part, it is due to the fact that parents are invariably surprised when their children turn adolescent and threaten to become men and women. Then they really become anxious about their future. It is like waking up with a start on December 20th (in the old days when you didn't have to mail early) and realizing that the Christmas presents about which we had been thinking more or less casually for several months now really have to be bought, wrapped, and sent. It is only natural, therefore, that the high school upon which the community counts to help out in the business should be scrutinized with intensity and impatience. Nor is it surprising that men in high places should call the attention of their contemporaries to the shortcomings

*Address given at State Conference of School Administrators, Framingham, Massachusetts, 1944.

of secondary education. Xenophon was so bitter about Athenian education that his own sons were schooled in Sparta; Plato wrote one of the world's most famous books about the subject; and Cato inveighed against the softness of Roman education. Paul Mallon, therefore, is in good company in his recent attacks on our schools, but it is to be regretted that he has more of their bitterness than of their wisdom.

THE PUBLIC'S ATTITUDE

Our point is then, that the sensitivity of the public toward the secondary schools is perfectly understandable when we realize that this is the period when decisions must be made which may affect the whole destiny of the individual. This is precisely the time when every group within the community as well as the individual himself demand that education begin delivering the goods in terms of jobs, families, security, character, and whatever else anyone regards as essential to the pursuit of happiness. We are here reaching the apex of the vast educational triangle where the high school and college must transmute all the pressures playing upon it into a satisfactory product, or have the entire educational system condemned. This is "last down and goal to go." If we make it, the crowd cheers and asks no questions about the days and days of practice that made it possible. If we don't make it, the crowd asks many questions but is not always interested in the answers, because it thinks it has the only answer, namely, that the coach is no good.

I realize that the term "payoff" recruited from the sporting circles is a crude and unsatisfactory synonym for "results," but it does carry the feeling of an outcome decided in a battle or contest and decided once and for all. I'm afraid life is something like that when it is really important, and that education is important only when it plays for keeps. You will understand, therefore, when I say that no system of education, no curriculum, no method, no device ever lasted very long after it stopped "paying off" in life. The writing curriculum of the Egyptians, the military regimen of Sparta, the rhetoric of the Sophists, the liberal arts of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance, the burgh schools, the Latin school, the Academy, the Realschule, the junior college, and the American high school were each designed to "pay off" in terms of success in a vocation and in the type of life which the majority of the people regarded as good and worthy of prestige. When the structure of any of these schools was such that it no longer met the demands of its time, it had either to change or perish. Education is like walking; it is a series of escapes from falling down. Every time it lifts a foot to move forward it jeopardizes its balance. There is no end to the process, and often the result is no more than to maintain an original position in the restless stream of life.

We in Massachusetts should be neither smug nor dismayed by the state of our secondary schools. Let us not forget that in Massachusetts we have represented the oldest and the very newest elements of American culture. All the complexity of modern industry, all the problems of diverse national and religious patterns, are represented in our commonwealth. Our state has almost as many moods as it has varieties of weather ranging from the laconic Cape through the bustling Boston and the sturdy Berkshires. It is not surprising, therefore, that our high schools through the blessings of local autonomy are not all at the same level of development. Nor is it surprising that those elements within our culture which enjoyed prestige and success under an older set of circumstances should want the education which accompanied that success and prestige to be perpetuated together with the circumstances which produced the education itself.

MEETING THE CHALLENGE

"Are our high schools meeting the circumstances of today?" This is a question which is relevant every day of the school year and a few times at least during vacation. Are they "paying off" when it is last down and goal to go?

Have our high schools and colleges "paid off" in helping to win the war? What have we learned from the figures on rejections for physical and mental disabilities? Were we able to mobilize enough skills and knowledges to man our war industries? Were our people able to take the anxieties and sacrifices of war and keep on coming for more? And how shall our secondary schools "pay off" in the peace to come? This is not a vague rhetorical question, but rather one for which there are very definite criteria. Good schools should ultimately "pay off" in terms of fuller and more secure employment, in lower divorce rates, lower death rates, better civic government, abundance of leaders in every field, a high rate of artistic activity, a decline in the number of nervous disorders and jail membership, and a decent set of ideals which will help us get our feet out of the trough more and more frequently.

Our job is to translate these ultimate social objectives of the community into learning experiences to be undergone by the individual for four years under our guidance. That is the limit of our responsibility, but it is certainly no less than that. Verbally, I think, most of our secondary-school people accept this philosophy; actually, I fear, that many of them cannot bring themselves to break the mould of a five-period day with a subject or study hour for each period. In other words, high school to some still means getting ready for college boards. How about those pupils who cannot or will not go to college? "Well, if they insist on cluttering up a high school let them be gracious enough to make believe they are going."

Since going to college is the most desirable of objectives for those who can profit from the trip, we can be fairly sure that a school which cannot prepare a certain percentage of its pupils for college isn't much of a high school. Yet in our time a school which does nothing but that isn't much of a school either.

I could, I suppose, review the numerous lists of noble objectives which have been prepared for the secondary school. Or I could recite the whole list of "the one thing that is wrong with our schools." Instead I suggest that what the high school ought to do is indicated by the nature of adolescence itself and the outstanding characteristic of the adolescent is that he lacks and needs "know-how" in almost every phase of adult living.

He has all the intelligence he will ever have; he has imagination and he can reason, but he simply lacks the knowledge and the skill which give the adult the stability which only self-confidence and experience can give. These "know-hows" it is the business of the secondary school to introduce and develop. Sometimes subject matter will do it; sometimes it won't; it may be done on the playground, in the classroom, or in a town 20 miles away. Let us not be too concerned about which end of the spine is active during the learning process and let us not keep either end fixed merely to qualify as Progressives or Conservatives or this or that.

WHAT A GRADUATE SHOULD KNOW

What are some of these "know-hows" that a boy or girl ought to have after four years with us?

First, to know how to read, write, and calculate at a certain level of proficiency. I know that some of our schools are already doing some sort of remedial work, and I should like to see it become a universal practice. I should like to see every high school set a minimum standard in these three fundamental skills and insist on mastery of them before graduation—yes, even if it means not doing some other things in the curriculum, and even if it means doing fifth- or sixth-grade work in high school. No other agency in the community can or will teach these skills if the schools don't.

We may mutter to ourselves as much as we like about it being "a fine thing to have to do this sort of thing in a high school," but until we are ready to refuse the triple-R illiterates admission to high school (and it seems that it is not always wise to do that) we had better resign ourselves not to let them leave us in the same state.

Second, they ought to know how human beings earn enough for a decent standard of living. Certainly they ought to know how it is being done in their own community. What kind of work is available, under what conditions it is performed, what skill it takes, what it pays, and how it fits in with the rest of the economic activities of the community—are

all relevant queries to be answered in high school. Before pupils leave high school, they ought to know what their own abilities indicate about a vocation; what further training they will need, how much it costs and where it is to be secured.

In this connection, there is the possibility that some of this training can be furnished by the high school itself. Here, too, let us not congeal in a rigid pattern. Towns like New Salem and Shelburne Falls have vocational programs which are geared to the needs of their particular communities, needs of the world. Newton, Boston, and other communities have other types of programs. In each case the needs of the community should decide what is provided; and as I look about me, I wonder if we haven't still a long way to go in this direction. As progress in pre-induction programs over the state is reported to me, I am hopeful that the patterns being created may not be lost when the need for pre-induction training no longer exists.

It may not be amiss for us to re-study some of the many suggestions in the *Massachusetts Youth Study* for the sort of occupational training that communities of even modest means can undertake. It is probably not too soon to consider how communities may unite to create training opportunities which no one of them alone could afford.

Third, important as earning a living is, I cannot believe that the thriving business of the divorce court, the jail, and mental institutions is due entirely or even in major part to vocational maladjustment. On the contrary, the maladjusted men and women who face these crises betray tragic ignorance in the skills of living with others and ourselves. In our times, conflicts are inevitable for everyone; everyone has to be frustrated more or less regularly. Success in life consists in knowing how to meet these conflicts and frustrations in a direct, constructive way instead of through perversion, over-compensation, hysteria, neurasthenia, rationalization, and the dozen or so other unhealthy mechanisms which are ruinous to the individual and his group. The best experience of the race has worked out laboriously solutions which have worked. Some of this experience is in books; some in the minds and hearts of teachers; some is in history and the sciences. The secondary school is the place where the rudiments of these skills can be taught and practiced.

THINKING AND PLANNING NECESSARY

Among these skills so necessary for the well-adjusted and successful citizen to possess is the ability to meet intelligently with understanding and with compassion the problems of intercultural tensions. The problem is so grave that Governor Saltonstall has appointed a commission to deal with it. The thirteenth annual Conference of Massachusetts Superintendents was devoted entirely to what education can do to help reduce these tensions—all

of which demonstrate that we still don't know how to live together as well as we should. In due time a report of the conclusions of the Conference will be published. One, however, should not wait for that report to begin the thinking and planning as to the special part the secondary school has to play in this most important of campaigns for Americanism. Even though the seeds of prejudice and intolerance are sown long before the high-school age, adolescence is the time when it too often ripens and becomes active. This is the time when social distinctions and cultural differences become important for the first time. One can play tag with anybody; one can dance with only the right people. The cliques and exclusions which take form in high school are very apt to continue through adult life.

There are, of course, a good many more particular "know hows" which can be included in the work of the good secondary school. A high school ought to be rated and evaluated in terms of the "know hows" it produces. This certainly is not indicated by the method of rating high schools now in force. The rating of A, B, or C does tell something about a high school, but unfortunately nothing very important. We need a more meaningful type of rating, and I hope that we can co-operate in formulating a method whereby we can tell just how many desirable services a school is giving to its community. Right now the rating of a school tells us about as much about a school as a diploma does about a graduate. How well does a school prepare pupils for college, for other types of post-secondary training? How much guidance service is there; how much follow up of graduates; how much placement; how much remedial work in the basic skills? How much does it do in developing the social skills? If these are valid *objectives* of the high-school program, then they ought to be valid *criteria* for evaluating that program.

There is one particular way in which the high school can be of service to the community, and it is a type of service for which there will be a great demand right after the war. High-school graduation is still a very significant factor in employment, qualifying for certain examinations, and the like. There are many men and women who for one reason or another have not been formally graduated from a high school and yet, by virtue of their own efforts and by the experiences they have had they have achieved the equivalent of a high-school education. They should be entitled to the recognition that a high-school diploma gives without the necessity of attending formal high-school classes to earn that diploma. A plan for a high-school diploma equivalency examination for Massachusetts similar perhaps to the one used in Rhode Island is now being considered by the department and I hope to appoint a committee with your co-operation which will study this.

I have tried to indicate briefly some of the more concrete tasks upon which we can begin work at once. There are many more which this Conference will honor by discussion and study. Frankly I see no end to problems.

Guidance in the Rural Secondary School

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CAST OUT upon the world without prospect of any particular service that they can perform efficiently, many high-school pupils can merit no position beyond that of the unskilled laborer for which no specificity of education is essential. As a result, rural secondary schools should bend every effort to profit from these ill-advised predicaments by providing an unceasing interest in guidance and by invigorating the teaching personnel to the point that *usefulness* must necessarily affect *all*, not just the pupil in school.

Guidance, a foreigner to most rural secondary-school administrators is in its infancy. In many instances, it is yet to be born. It appears that guidance like its predecessors in the curriculum will have to pass through a trial and error period, first stimulated by persuasion, then exhortation, and finally by example.

From the numerous studies of rural secondary schools, it appears that rural areas will have to organize a curriculum to meet the needs and interests of four differentiated classes of students:

1. Those who will sever all connections with the school upon reaching the compulsory school-attendance age.
2. Those who will be graduated from high school and remain on the farm.
3. Those who will be graduated from high school, remain on the farm temporarily, and then journey cityward in quest of a job.
4. Those who will be graduated from high school and will enter college.

NEED FOR TRAINING

In a recent study of 13,528 Maryland youth, 9,487 of the 10,392 out-of-school youth reporting information, or 91 per cent, were not continuing their education.¹ Of these out-of-school youth approximately 60 per cent expressed a desire for some type of vocational training.²

The Advisory Committee on Education further cites³ that 700,000 young people in 1934-35 had to quit school before finishing high school. Almost all of them received no training for earning a livelihood. Leaders in vocational education hold that these young people should, while idle, be trained for some useful employment and that part-time and evening classes should be made available for their further improvement after they go to work. Although 5,700 localities are now served by programs of vocational education in agriculture, over 9,000 other rural communities need to be reached. In 1934-35,

¹Basic figures supplied by the American Youth Commission. Certain derived figures appear in Howard M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story*, p. 68.

²Bell *Ibid.*, p. 70.

³The Advisory Committee on Education, *Education in the Forty-Eight States*, Staff Study Number I, Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, pp. 64-65.

only 23,000 out of a total of 3,000,000 farm boys out of school received part-time instruction in vocational agriculture. Notwithstanding the progress in industrial education not more than one out of every ten communities having a population of more than 10,000 provides training for any other than commercial occupations in its public schools.

In addition to reviewing the number of localities sponsoring vocational education programs, secondary enrollments also present another aspect of the problem. A little less than half of the school population is enrolled in rural schools. The 1940 Census⁴ reports that of the 29,745,246 persons five to seventeen years of age, 24,548,777 were attending school. The same source shows that rural schools enrolled 11,719,518 youth. Where high-school opportunities are readily accessible and of high quality it is reasonable to assume that approximately thirty per cent of the total public school enrollment may ultimately be found in the secondary schools. In 1935-36, the average for all of the states was about twenty-three per cent, and in twenty-two states more than twenty-five per cent of the pupils were in the four highest grades.⁵

Each year in the United States about 1,750,000 young men and women usually seek employment as beginning workers. About half are town and city youth; the other half have grown up in villages or on the farms. Many are graduates of high schools or of vocational schools or classes. In the country as a whole, perhaps forty per cent have dropped out of school without going beyond the second year of high school. In a few states more than half have dropped out without going beyond the elementary schools.⁶ It is further cited⁷ that under present conditions, with the rapid development of war industries, young people mainly need help in selecting the most appropriate types of work, securing training for them, and in many cases, adjusting their personal vocational plans to the necessities of compulsory military training and service.

As the school reaches more youth than any other agency, it is reasonably logical that with respect to occupations, training, and placement the school should be the initial starting point. A greater degree of interpretation, analyzing, reorganization, and evaluation of the rural secondary-school curriculum is necessary if we are to meet realistically these changing needs and interests of young people and provide for their future economic, social, and political, welfare. In other words, the quantitative as well as the qualitative aspects of guidance along occupational and vocational lines needs to be given more serious consideration by rural school administrators and should result in making such a program accessible to all who need it.

⁴U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census. *Population, Characteristics by Age*, Vol. IV. Part I, U. S. Summary, Washington, D. C.; Superintendent of Documents, Page 39, Table 14.

⁵The Advisory Committee. *Op. cit.* p. 29.

⁶The General Report of the American Youth Commission, *Youth and the Future*, American Council of Education, Washington, D. C.: 1942, p. 135.

⁷*Ibid.*, pp. 135-36.

In the main, youth's own diagnoses of their needs as shown in the many rural youth surveys of the first half of the 1930's were confirmed. Rural youth want jobs, economic security, more purposeful education, a richer social life, vocational guidance, and help in family and personal adjustments.⁸

The present experience is emphasized in the need for more vocational education in rural areas and in facilitating the experimentation necessary to find solutions for the difficult problem of rural vocational education. To give rural young people some preliminary preparation for work in the war industries, general shop courses are being organized in the larger rural high schools throughout the country. In the general report of the American Youth Commission, the statement is cited⁹ that it has been demonstrated that these courses give rural young people a useful preliminary orientation for industrial work, as well as increased skills for the miscellaneous work activities of rural areas.

In some states the resident centers for work and training which were operated jointly by the state boards of vocational education and the National Youth Administration permitted rural young people who were limited financially to secure training which could be provided in their own home communities only under the greatest difficulty, if at all.

NEED FOR A GUIDANCE PROGRAM

If the reader believes that a guidance program is impracticable or impossible in the rural secondary school of any particular enrollment, one might cite some courses that are taught for credit in some of our American secondary schools and colleges to indicate that sometimes that which appears impossible is considered very practical. For example, some schools are teaching with credit granted, drum majoring, photoplay and radio appreciation, music appreciation, ice-skating, personal grooming, theory and practices of freshwater angling, sanitation, personality, and humor.

If education means growth, evolution, and efficiency, something that is dynamic and flexible enough to radiate experiences that will prepare rural young people for purposeful living—then the present day rural secondary school has failed in its mission. If one assumes that the basic purpose of an education is to provide the tools of learning, then practical experiences commensurate with the rapidly changing social order should predominate. A student drilled in the verse of Longfellow or Whittier will certainly not become a first-rate journalist anymore than an individual trained in finance will become a banker. When the practical affairs of the world are laid alongside the abstract themes and theories of the classroom and further allied with useful work experience stimulated by adequate guidance, then, and only then, will

⁸Brunner, Edmund deS. *Working With Rural Youth*, Washington, D. C.: The American Youth Commission, American Council on Education, 1942, p. 106.

⁹*Ibid.*, pp. 137-38.

the student become fully cognizant of the role he is to occupy as a citizen. The opportunity to visualize the pragmatic supported by intelligent guidance should convert rural youth from memory machines into beings with wise initiative and purposeful goals.

From a broad overall viewpoint, population trends, social and economic changes, and technological and mechanical progress in the present and post-war era will undoubtedly create the need for expert and continuous study of the problem of guidance. The challenge faces the rural secondary school.

A PROPOSED PROGRAM OF GUIDANCE

A guidance program might be designed beginning with orientation subjects in the seventh grade that would provide a channelization process through the eighth-, ninth-, and tenth-grade levels, and possibly terminate in the eleventh or twelfth year. This program would allow desirable electives which rural secondary-school pupils might select through teacher advisement. Vocational agriculture, shopwork experience, industrial arts and trades, home-making, metal craft, wood craft, leather craft, aeronautics, refrigeration, methods of transportation, mechanical experience, and commercial and business experience would appear to be some fields of endeavor to which the rural secondary school might extend consideration. Prior to entrance into any one channel of vocational education the pupil could be subjected to some method of classification, as is possible through the use of standardized and unstandardized tests.

Both educational and vocational guidance are necessary to the well-balanced curriculum. The trend following the war appears to be headed toward an emphasis on specialization. However, one must not lose sight of the fact that a broad general education will be just as indispensable in post-war times as the specialized type of education. It should be the aim of every rural school administrator to survey the community in which he is located to ascertain the basic needs and interests of the rural young people, to determine the natural resources available, and to co-operate with the varied local, state, and national agencies.

To formulate carefully and clearly the school's position in the community so that contributions emanating from those participating in solving the problems of rural young folk will aid directly in the improvement of the American way of life should be the focal point for the reorganization of the curriculum. Doctor Ralph W. Tyler has stated³⁰ that an effective and thorough-going job of education demands more careful study of the total environment of our young people and more effort so to control that environment that it will provide an atmosphere and the conditions conducive to the growth and the development that we are seeking to achieve.

³⁰Tyler, Ralph W. "The Responsibility of the School for the Improvement of American Life," *The School Review*. An address given on July 17, 1944, at the thirteenth Annual Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools. September, 1944, pp. 403-04.

Consumer Problems of the High-School Student

WILLIAM VAN TIL

Consumer Education Study

WHEN 180 high-school students in nine varied American communities were asked, "If your school offered the twenty-eight fields of study in consumer education which are described (on the accompanying sheets) and you were to choose from them, which six should you most want to take?" the following fields were their favored choices:

WHAT THEY MOST PREFERRED

52 per cent of the students chose

Education—how to choose, buy, and use it. Whether you should go to college. Kinds of education possible after high school. Business school and correspondence courses. Opportunities for technical education. Importance of selecting education which meets your needs. Educating yourself.

46 per cent of the students chose

Clothing—how to choose, buy, and use it. How to plan and select the clothes you buy. Caring for clothing. Knowing fabrics, style, workmanship. Style *vs.* fashion. Planning the best wardrobe you can get with the money you have.

Using labels in getting good buys. The extent to which Americans are well clothed.

42 per cent of the students chose

Making your house a home. Choosing, buying, and using housing. Whether you should buy or rent when you want a home. Making your home more comfortable and attractive. Caring for household appliances and making simple repairs.

What housing is like in this country. Slum clearance and the development of low-cost housing.

36 per cent of the students chose

How Americans can be sure of jobs and a living. Protection from unemployment and accidents, through insurance. Kinds of insurance, like life and property. Government social-security program. Full employment as a goal for America.

34 per cent of the students chose

Making the most of the health you have. How health affects your appearance and your earnings.

What foods we need and how to get them. Seven basic food rules. How recreation can make us healthy. The importance of sleep, of health examinations. The necessity for keeping up with the findings of science.

32 per cent of the students chose

Planning your spending. Getting the most for your money. Your real income. What you want out of life. How large your allowance should be and what you can do with it.

Using your income. What a budget is. How to make and keep a budget.

32 per cent of the students chose

The kinds of economic systems. What an economic system is for. The economic systems of Germany, Russia, Sweden, and the like. How our American business enterprise system grew up. How American government control became important.

Where we may go from here. What the future holds for business. The possibilities of planning together by government and business. Possibilities of government planning.

30 per cent of the students chose

What to do when you have time on your hands. How much leisure time do you have? How you can tell what is worth doing.

The wide variety of things to do. Physical, creative, group, and solitary recreation. Getting information on kinds of leisure-time activities. Doing something about your recreation program.

WHAT THEY LEAST PREFERRED

When the same 180 high-school students in the 9 varied American communities were asked, "Which six (of the twenty-eight proposed consumer education fields of study) would you least want to take?" the following were those they reported least desirable:¹

47 per cent of the students would least like to take

School purchases—how to choose, buy, and use them. Buying school supplies, like notebooks. Choosing clubs to join. Choosing shows, games, and other social events to attend and buying tickets for them. Buying in the lunchroom and from the candy stand.

33 per cent of the students would least like to take

How you can use advertising to help you buy. What advertising does. How advertising changes your spending.

Selecting advertising to meet your needs from newspapers, magazines, radio, and mail. How else does advertising serve consumers? What the criticisms of advertising are.

32 per cent of the students would least like to take

Transportation and communication—how to choose, buy, and use these

¹Two rural fields of study are not reported here. "Buying for Life on the Farm" and "Your Life in the Country." They were included to determine rural students' reactions to such fields and were naturally rejected by city students as not matters of major concern to them.

- services.* How you can best buy tickets to travel and use timetables. How you can use the telephone in making purchases. How you can use telegrams.
- 31 per cent of the students would least like to take

You are the center of the economic system. How banks, manufacturers, stores, and government serve you. How you use the economic system.

How a business is organized. How its products get to the store. Where products come from and how they are grown, canned, and related steps.

- 31 per cent of the students would least like to take

Improvements that have been suggested for the economic system. Problems of advertising, taxes, distribution of income. Problems of useless products standardization, the consumer movement. Corporations, the middleman, distributing goods. Depression and prosperity. Relationships between capital and labor. Whether to buy at home or from other communities and nations.

- 30 per cent of the students would least like to take

How you can get information from organizations so that you can be a good buyer. The kinds of information the consumer may get from groups like Consumers' Research, Consumers Union, departments of our government, business, and the like.

Selecting information from organizations. Information consumers like yourself still need, but which is not available to you yet.

- 29 per cent of the students would least like to take

The kinds of economic systems. What an economic system is for. The economic systems of Germany, Russia, Sweden, and the like. How our American business enterprise system grew up. How American government control became important.

Where we may go from here. What the future holds for business. The possibilities of unregulated business; planning by business. The possibilities of planning together by government and business. Possibilities of government planning.

- 24 per cent of the students would least like to take

Techniques for spending. How credit and loans may be used or abused. How to handle a charge account. How to buy on the installment plan. When to borrow and how to repay.

How to use banks. Opening and using a bank account. How to use checks.

STUDENTS INCLUDED IN THE STUDY

The 111 girls and the 69 boys who registered these choices were largely eleventh and twelfth grade students in high schools in Frederick, Maryland; Terrell, Texas; Newtown, New York City; Sullivan, Indiana; Cleveland, Ohio; Santa Barbara, California; Hubbertsville, Alabama; Rockymount, Virginia; and the Willimantic, Connecticut, area. The fields of study were

those in which the Consumer Education Study tentatively planned to prepare teaching units, a plan since modified, partly because of the results of the survey.

Originally, checklists containing the fields of study were sent to seventeen school systems throughout the United States, selected to approximate the correct national distribution among urban and rural population, among geographic sections, and among sizes of localities. To obtain a balanced occupational sampling, schools were specifically asked that students who were characteristic of the school population be selected to check the list. An analysis of responses from nine schools showed so few significant deviations, regardless of whether the school was urban or rural, that it was decided for economy to report the study upon the basis of returns from nine of the seventeen situations.

WHAT STUDENTS CONCEIVE THEIR NEEDS TO BE

Two major conclusions may be drawn from this survey of what students conceive their needs and problems to be in the area of consumer education.

1. *An emphasis upon the practical and the immediate* characterizes the responses. Primarily the students have selected the day-by-day problems they meet in their adolescent lives as those which they would like to study. They ask the schools for aid on the down-to-earth homely problems that vex them now. They want the school to help them to choose, buy, and use wisely their education, which they appreciate is most important to them. They want school aid on consumer education about clothing. They want to learn to make their house a home and to make the most of the health they have. They want to know how to obtain economic safety. They want to be able to plan their spending and their disposition of leisure time. And they want understanding of our economic system which, though not immediately practical, a discriminating number appreciate is fundamental to intelligent citizenship.

It is clear that they want school courses which recognize the serious consumer problems they encounter in the here and now as they live each day. If consumer education will offer them practical help with their immediate human problems, they will respond favorably. Educators know how important to the educative process is interest and receptivity of the learner.

2. *Rejection of studying social-economic organizations unless they are shown to be intimately related to their lives* characterizes the student responses.

The fact that instruction regarding school purchases and regarding transportation and communication is not desired is probably the result of a feeling that about these matters they already know all that they need to know. Surprisingly, these students do not feel the importance of information from organizations that might enable them to become better buyers,

perhaps because they have had little or no experience in getting such help. Advertising seems to them a remote and indefinite value.

Conspicuous among the topics rejected by these students are those which deal with social-economic problems, the organization of our economy, and the improvements that have been suggested for our economic system. It is interesting to observe that a sizable number of students (32 per cent) wish to include a study of the kinds of economic systems, but that a similar number (29 per cent) reject it. To some, apparently, study of economic systems has vital significance, while to others it seems remote, meaningless, and therefore undesirable.

Three topics regarding social-economic matters, as well as advertising, and getting expert information on consumer goods, are rejected by these students. They are inclined to favor what they see as intimately related to their own immediate life problems. For instance, only one broad-scale social-economic problem other than economic systems, on which students indicate divided opinions, appears on the eight most favored fields of twenty-eight. This is the problem of how Americans can be sure of jobs and a living, a concern which the high-school boy or girl sees as vitally important. It is significant that this problem is closer to the practical and immediate in the students' patterns of living than matters of economic organization which apparently appear more remote to these adolescents.

WHAT TOPICS INTEREST STUDENTS

These two conclusions, that students wish to study the practical and immediate and that they reject the study of social-economic organization more frequently than they favor it, are strengthened by a companion investigation to the checklist on consumer education fields of study. Two hundred thirty-one other students in the same nine varied American communities were asked to "indicate by a check those topics or subjects you should like to study if they were offered in your high school. Check only those you would really want to take." The 105 boys and the 126 girls checked from a list of 200 topics in consumer education, which were drawn from consumer education textbooks, from an unpublished study of what consumer education teachers regard as significant topics, and from Consumer Education Study staff experience.² The topics were categorized under major headings, and all topics checked by more than 35 per cent of the 231 students are reported below.

Of twenty topics grouped under the heading: "Managing Your Income Today and Tomorrow," students favored six:

49% Learning how to budget your money.

47% Saving for your future needs, such as college, a car, clothes.

42% How to earn money while you are in school.

²Again, specifically rural items are not included in this general report.

- 39% Learning how to make better use of your time.
- 36% Using your bank, particularly savings account and checking account.
- 35% Getting your money's worth.

Of twelve topics grouped under the heading "Clothing and Personal Appearance," students favored four:

- 50% How to plan for and buy your clothing, such as coats and shoes.
- 42% What books or courses on etiquette, sex, strength, and the like are worth buying and which are useless.
- 40% How to select fabrics that will be durable and attractive.
- 35% What to look for in buying a dress or suit.

Of twelve topics grouped under the heading "Making Your House a Home," students favored three:

- 61% Making the home in which you live, or plan to live, more attractive and comfortable.
- 43% Decorating your own room.
- 37% How you can make simple home repairs.

Of nine topics grouped under the heading "Food—How to Choose, Buy, and Use It," students favored three:

- 49% What you want to know about diet, vitamins, nutrition for healthy eating.
- 47% Which foods are essential to your health.
- 40% How you can select, buy, and store food.

Of six topics grouped under the heading "School Life Purchases," students favored three:

- 48% Choosing dances, shows, games, and other social events to attend, and buying tickets for them.
- 39% Choosing clubs to join and getting information about costs.
- 35% Getting good buys when you purchase your school supplies, like erasers, notebooks, and fountain pens.

Of fourteen topics grouped under the heading "Education," students favored four:

- 60% Choosing your career and vocation.
- 46% Whether you should go to college.
- 44% Kinds of colleges a person could go to, liberal arts, engineering, and the other types.
- 36% Costs of various schools and colleges which you might attend.

Of twenty-six topics grouped under the heading "Recreation," students favored four:

- 43% Inexpensive ways you can have fun.
- 42% Entertaining friends.
- 38% Choosing books and magazines for your leisure reading.
- 36% Whether recreation, or certain kinds of recreation, are sinful or immoral.

Of thirty-six topics grouped under the heading "The Economic System," students favored six:

- 49% Why we have times of prosperity and depression again and again in this country.
- 48% Taxes and their effect on you.
- 46% What are the standards of living of people on different income levels.
- 38% How social-security programs can protect you.
- 37% Whether or not Americans should buy from foreign countries.
- 37% Effect of inflation upon your income.

Of twenty topics grouped under the heading "Health," students favored four:

- 41% What science is doing in promoting health and overcoming disease.
- 36% How recreation affects your health.
- 35% How you can select a doctor, dentist, or hospital, when you need one.
- 35% How you can choose good toothpastes, toothbrushes, and first-aid equipment.

Of thirty-two topics grouped under the heading "Consumer Information and Protection," students favored six:

- 49% How you can detect frauds.
- 41% How you can learn to identify material and quality through looking at merchandise.
- 39% How you can recognize propaganda and analyze its effect on you.
- 38% How to select the stores and other places to buy from so as to get your money's worth.
- 37% What laws there are that protect you as a buyer.
- 36% Whether guarantees are any good for you as a buyer.

Of twelve topics grouped under the heading "Community Action," students favored two:

- 46% How people can work together and get good things, like libraries, hospitals, garbage collection, and traffic control.
- 37% The responsibility you have as a student for helping make your community a good place to live in.

WHAT CAN BE DONE

In the light of such data on students' interests in fields of study and in topics in consumer education, consumer educators might profitably re-examine their approach to instruction and the current courses of study. Is consumer education sufficiently taking into account the immediacy and practicality of students' interests and concerns in consumer education? It is not here argued that consumer education should be content to teach only the problems which students at the moment see as significant. It is recognized that teachers attempt to expand concepts and widen horizons. But the concerns and desires of high-school students make an excellent point of departure for sound, broad education. Certainly instruction is not likely to be most effective unless teachers motivate learning by making instruction obviously contribute to the lives of the learner.

Too frequently educators, in their zeal for teaching broad and abstract

knowledge, forget the needs and tensions of their students. Such educators follow the self-defeating policy of concentrating on general concepts that students do not appreciate as of concern to them and which they cannot relate to their experiences. Perhaps this is the reason that students show a disinclination toward the problems of economic organization and ask for vital practical instruction in narrowly limited, but immediately useful, fields and topics. There may be real point in the comment of the consumer educator who said that consumer education should begin with the small boy who fondles the nickel in his pocket while he gazes into the store window.

Certainly educators have an obligation to utilize to the fullest extent the needs felt by students, needs in the field of consumer education that are revealed by this study, and to help them to the attainment of powers that will bring satisfactions of lasting value. But education has also another obligation, to propose other needs and to make unmistakably clear to young people the importance and significance in their own lives, at the present or in the probable future, of what skilled teachers believe to be desirable for growth in effective living. Students must not only recognize these proposed experiences as desirable; but they must also desire them before they will exercise intelligent study that leads to both achievement and retention of powers.

Every School Can Observe American Education Week

By holding openhouse and inviting parents to visit school.

By placing posters about the community. Order a supply from the NEA.

By sending leaflets home to parents. These may be produced locally or a supply of the inexpensive leaflet "A Mighty Force in the World" may be obtained from the NEA.

By planning assemblies and classwork around the topics. Use the plays published by the NEA.

By asking churches, civic groups, parent-teacher associations, and other organizations to devote programs to the observance.

By using the local newspapers including newsstories, editorials, and advertising. Use the AEW Advertising mats prepared by the NEA.

By radio programs. Use the scripts or recordings prepared by the NEA. Note: Sets of seven recordings of the scripts on the daily topics are available for \$20. These have been produced by professional talent.

By using the 2-minute, 35mm. motion-picture trailer in your local theaters.

By co-operating with any special plans for American Education Week developed on a state-wide basis.

And in scores of other ways.

**Act Now To Plan Your Program
Act Now To Obtain Needed Materials**

The Consumer Education Study

THOMAS H. BRIGGS, *Director*

(Excerpts from the Report for 1943-44)

DURING its second year the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals has made material progress in its program of developing objective teaching-learning units for use in high schools.

SCOPE OF CONSUMER EDUCATION

After the exploring studies made during the first year, an *Overview* was prepared, presenting for the first time a comprehensive, but tentative, organization of all of the topics that seem to belong to the education of the consumer. This *Overview* was circulated in mimeographed form for consideration and criticism by several hundred representatives of education, business, labor, agriculture, and of organizations representing the consumer movement. The Home Economics Women in Business were of especial help. The *Overview* contributed significantly to clarify understanding of the scope of consumer education, and it also produced a number of valuable suggestions and criticisms that emphasize the need of unmistakable clearness to overcome prejudices and erroneous conceptions of what consumer education can and should do.

The *Overview* as revised not only shows the topics that should be included in consumer education, but it also presents them in an organization that reveals their relations to each other and to the whole field. This should enable anyone to select and organize for teaching purposes such topics as he judges of most importance. Such a selection by the Study of topics for development into teaching-learning units has been modified by the limitations in war time of available personnel. But fortunately it has been able to secure workers who are competent to develop those topics that seem most important and in previous programs most neglected. These topics are general in nature and fundamental in understanding of good consumership, rather than concerned with the details of commodities, which have already been treated and perhaps overemphasized by current courses of study and textbooks.

The units as developed became longer than originally intended and probably longer than can be used by high-school classes, and so will need to be reduced somewhat in length before final publication. Even in the long form, however, they will be of great value to teachers and to writers of courses of study and of textbooks. This is a contribution of the greatest importance, for in the practice of today the larger schools are much more likely to develop their own courses than they are to use teaching plans produced by others, whereas the smaller schools will be more likely to use such materials exactly as published by the Study.

It is generally recognized that progress in education is handicapped more by the lack of such curriculum materials as the Study is producing than by ignorance of the objectives that should be sought. Many teachers who approve in theory the necessary materials of instruction and others cannot take the time from their required duties. Consequently the units being prepared by the Study should make a significant contribution to the progress of high-school education.

TEACHING-LEARNING UNITS

The tentative drafts of these units are being distributed in mimeographed form for criticism and for experimental use in co-operating schools. The generous help of those who have read and used the tentative units is evidence of widespread interest in consumer education and of a recognition of its increasing importance. On the whole, the critics have given gratifying approval to the units, but at the same time they have not failed to indicate passages and even points of view that they think should be changed. Every criticism has been carefully considered, and most of them have been accepted with consequent improvement of the units. Probably no other teaching materials have ever had the benefit of such criticism from so wide a variety of intelligent representatives of our citizenry. The criticisms and suggestions will enable us to make the units not only sound but also better adapted to the needs of the schools.

Following is a list of the units that are ready, though not yet published, in process, or proposed, the last being indicated by parentheses.

1. Problems and Opportunities of the Modern American Consumer
2. (A Study of Consumers)
3. What Young People Wish to Know
4. You and Our Economic System
5. Competing Economic Systems
6. (Economic Phenomena and Underlying Theories)
7. Money Management
8. Consumer Credit
9. The Consumer and Problems of Distribution, Including Co-operatives
10. Understanding Insurance
11. Advertising
12. Standards, Specifications, and Labels
13. Testing and Rating Agencies
14. Effective Shopping
15. A Buyer's Handbook
16. Consumer Law
17. Investing in Yourself
18. (Buying Health and Recreation)
19. Time on Your Hands
20. (Foods for Health)
21. Making a House Your Home

22. The Rural Consumer and His Problems
23. (How to Introduce and Develop Consumer Education, including the Consumer Movement and the Schools)
24. (Selected and Annotated Bibliographies (a) for teachers and (b) for students.)
25. (Measurements of Results)

The list of units indicates several significant characteristics of the Consumer Education Study. In the first place, it has extended the usual scope of the field to include consideration of a number of topics that are important for general education of consumers but that have so far been neglected, such as the consumption of leisure time, investing in oneself, and buying health. In the second place, the Study is emphasizing general principles, an understanding of which is believed to be more important in the education of youth than a knowledge of the details of commodities, which already have been presented in numerous courses of study and textbooks. The units do not use immediate consumer interest as the sole criterion of importance, but, rather, emphasize the consumer in relation to a whole, sound economy.

Not obvious from the list, but also characteristic of the program of the Study, the units are written with as much objectivity as possible. They will explain theories and present pertinent facts, leaving to the students decisions as to what they should conclude and as to how they should act. This procedure which may not be approved by those who wish to use education, on the one hand, to bring about reforms of their own personal liking or, on the other, to maintain their own interests, is in accord with the generally approved educational principle that youth should be taught how to think, not what to think.

A final characteristic of the units to be noted is that they are not intended to undermine confidence in dependable business principles and practices. Rather, they are intended to establish understanding of what sound principles and practices are, so that young people can intelligently distinguish between what is good and what is bad.

COMMERCIAL SUPPLEMENTARY TEACHING MATERIALS

The study of supplementary teaching materials prepared and distributed by business for use in secondary schools has been completed. A comprehensive discussion of the problem in mimeographed form was distributed to representatives of business and to a number of educators, and two luncheon conferences on the problems involved were held in New York. The chief questions at issue are, "Since such materials are widely used by schools, how can valid objections to their use be prevented by avoidance in preparation of sales-promotion?" and "How can they be made more valuable in education?"

To achieve the desired objective there has been developed a set of criteria that will guide business in the preparation of such material, on the one hand,

and that will guide teachers, on the other hand, in the selection of materials that they may properly use. These criteria have had general approval by the representatives of business and of education that have been consulted. A litho-printed discussion of the problem with the proposed criteria was distributed in May for consideration by approximately 150 selected educators—administrators, teachers, and specialists in consumer education—and by representatives of the consumer movement. (The revised monograph was published in October, 1944.—Editor.)

The criteria having been finally approved, the Consumer Education Study offers the following services to business concerns that wish them in preparing supplementary teaching materials for the schools:

- a. To inform them of the place in the curriculum in which the proposed materials are most likely to find use;
- b. To explain the criteria so that objections are less likely to be raised to the use of the materials after they are prepared;
- c. To transmit to business requests by the schools for materials that are desired but are not available.

PROJECTS

1. The award of small scholarships last summer to students in eight university curriculum workshops brought reports of varied value. Three were worth more than our entire appropriation could have been expected to pay for; four were of some value; one was worthless.
2. Our offer of financial aid to post-graduate candidates for the doctorate who would conduct research on topics approved by us brought no responses. Apparently professors in the field of consumer education had no research students this year.
3. In September, 1943, we issued a short supplement to *My Part in This War* bringing the war-time economic program up to date. The total distribution was "in excess of 45,000 copies.
4. The members of the staff have completed an extended piece of research on the judgments of representative youth as to the importance of a selected number of topics in consumer education. The report of this study will be ready for publication in the early fall. (See the report in the current Bulletin.—Editor.)
5. During the winter the Director conferred individually with some twenty-five economists in education and in business in an effort to ascertain if there are important economic principles that should be understood by all consumers. Afterward a conference on the problem was held in New York with six distinguished economists, three from universities and three from business. No such principles could be agreed upon.

Another approach was made to the same general problem, and the question was raised, "What are the economic phenomena that puzzle the intelligent laymen and what are the theories supporting and opposing them?"

Illustrative of such phenomena are fixed-price maintenance laws, taxation for regulation rather than revenue, legal interference with interstate commerce, and legal restrictions on production. Economists, including Dr. Harold G. Moulton, of the Brookings Institution, have approved the development of a unit on this problem, but so far we have been unable to find any sufficiently competent person to develop it.

6. Numerous conferences have been held with experts looking to the development of a program for measuring the results of teaching consumer education. Despite disagreement among these experts, we have assurance that techniques can be found for measuring not only the acquiring and retention of actual information, but also skills and changes in attitudes. The latter we think are the most important. Nearly all specialists in measurement are at present in the service of the military forces or for one reason or another are unavailable for work with us. Search is being continued for the person that we want. If he can not be found and engaged, this project will have to be deferred.

7. Co-operation has been promised by the American Home Economics Association, the National Council of Social Studies, the American Vocational Association, the National Council of Science Teachers, the National Council for Business Education, and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics to prepare a series of reports emphasizing the teaching of consumer education in the several fields, showing how it can most effectively be presented, and preventing wasteful duplications.

A PROPOSED MOVING PICTURE PROJECT

Inasmuch as moving pictures are now extensively used in instruction and in all probability will be more used with the increasing realization of the effectiveness of visual aids in teaching, it is proposed that the Consumer Education Study or a parallel organization set up under the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, furnish the same services for films as outlined in a preceding section of this report for printed materials. Business is already furnishing many moving picture films to schools and in all likelihood will continue to do so, and both it and the schools can profit from information and advice that such an organization could give.

A number of committees are already at work on the problem, researches have been conducted, many firms are producing films for school use, and the military forces and the U. S. Office of Education have developed both heightened and increased respect for visual aids as an effective means of instruction. But at present the various movements are not co-ordinated,

few people have a comprehensive understanding of what is being done and planned. Consequently the Consumer Education Study is having made; by an expert widely experienced in the field, a survey of existing and of planned activities.

This survey will indicate what services, if any, an organization financed by the National Better Business Bureau and sponsored by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals could perform. When it is completed, definite proposals will be made.

PERSONNEL

During this fiscal year the staff at Washington has been: Dr. Thomas H. Briggs, Director; Dr. Fred T. Wilhelms, Assistant Director; Dr. Effie Bathurst, Miss Leone Heuer (until December 15), Mr. William Van Til, Dr. Florence Wagner (since January), Mr. Douglas Ward (until May), Mrs. Norma Allertz (beginning in June), Dr. Edna Bohlman (beginning in June), Mr. Howard Thomas, editorial assistant (for three months), and Miss Estella Weeks, research assistant (for three months), Mrs. Eleanor Dixon, secretary, and two part-time typists. Mr. Luther Hemmons has also served as a research assistant on a contingent basis.

This staff has worked harmoniously, co-operatively, and effectively. Each one has developed from the approved list one or more topics in which he is especially interested and for which he has peculiar competence. After he had made a tentative outline of what he proposed to do, it was discussed formally by the entire group in a series of seminars and informally in numerous conferences of two or more. The new and enlarged quarters furnished by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals have facilitated the development of a fine *esprit de corps*. Each manuscript as it was developed was read critically by all members of the staff. By these means a considerable degree of unity in the manuscripts has resulted.

The following people have worked on a part-time basis as writers or consultants: Dr. Frank W. Cyr, Dr. Neil H. Borden, Mr. Edward Goldstein, Dr. Ruth Strang, and Mrs. Mildred W. Wood.

Arrangements were made for several other writers to work for us during the summer of 1944 and next year. They are Miss Gladys Bahr, Dr. Robert A. Bream, Miss Leota Johns, Mrs. Dorothy Canfield Fisher, Dr. Edward Reah, and Dr. Jesse F. Williams.

PUBLICITY

The Consumer Education Study has used so far no extensive program of publicity for its work, deciding that this will be more effective when the teaching units are ready for distribution. It has, however, kept the professional public aware of what it is attempting to do. It has published nearly every month news notes in *The Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-

School Principals; it proposed discussion topics in the Association's Annual *Challenging Issues for Secondary Schools*; and it prepared an article for *The Civic Leader*. Dr. Wilhelms spent October in making a cross-country trip visiting schools and holding conferences with leaders in the field. The Director has delivered addresses on consumer education, and other members of the staff have met with the social studies teachers in several cities to explain our program and to get pledges of co-operation. The members of the staff also responded to many requests for information and advice from teachers and research workers.

There have been numerous conferences by the members of the staff with individuals who were interested and, in some cases, frankly suspicious that the Study is, on the one hand, a "tool of big business" or, on the other, a radical movement to reform the economic system. These suspicions seem to have been allayed by a frank statement of its purposes and of its program, but, the final effect will of course depend on the units that are produced. On the whole the Study conferences and correspondence seemed to have satisfactory results. Those who have evinced skepticism are having an opportunity to review the tentative manuscripts. If they do not take the trouble to present convincing reasons for changes, they should make no complaint after publication.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE COMMITTEE

This Committee remains as at first constituted, with two exceptions. Mr. Virgil M. Hardin resigned, having left the principalship of a junior high school in Springfield, Missouri, to enter business, being replaced by Dr. Hugh H. Stewart, principal of the Davis High School, Mt. Vernon, New York; Mr. John E. Wellwood resigned both his principalship and his membership on the Administrative Committee because of ill health, and was replaced by Mr. R. R. Vance, State Supervisor of Secondary Education, Tennessee.

The Committee has held two meetings, one in New York in October and one in Cleveland in March. Periodically the Director has sent to the members of the Committee extended written reports, and all special problems have been laid before them by correspondence. At the Cleveland meeting Dr. Wilhelms was rewarded for his fine work by being made Associate Director.

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Health, Sex, and Human Relations in Education

LESTER A. KIRKENDALL*

SOME NEEDS of the postwar world are nebulously distinguished, others have been sketched by fancy. One need, however, stands out in bold relief; of its existence there can be no doubt. That need is for a pattern of human relations which will fit a democratic, interdependent society.

The field of human relations is inclusive. Associations between people as they live in their religious, racial, business, and economic groups are encompassed in it. Health in human relations, as the new sex education is sometimes called, is conceived to include those relations in families, personal associations, and community relationships as they are affected by the fact of sex. This means that the major concern becomes personal, family, and community adjustments and relationships, and the chief objective is the improvement of our associations in these groups. Numerous forces point to the need for this emphasis in postwar education. For example problems of family stability become increasingly serious. Our high-school young people of the postwar period may be living in a society in which one marriage out of four terminates in divorce. The ideal of the closely-knit, self-sustaining family unit now exists chiefly in memory. Instead we have migration which weakens family and community controls. We have an industrialization which has taken many of the former functions of the home—and in some cases the mother—from it. Young people if they are to make a success of home life will need much more careful and serious consideration of family life and the responsibilities and the importance of sound human relations than they have received heretofore.

We have come to a point also in our social organization where sex and sex behavior is treated quite openly in the newspapers, in books, movies, and in conversations in peer groups. War experiences have swept away inhibitions to free discussion and, with many individuals, to free practices in sex conduct, as any man in the military service can tell you. Only by emulating the ostrich can we believe that our young people remain uninformed unless we choose to inform them. In view of this trend we only invite postwar disaster by evading our clear responsibility for adequate education.

The increasing efficacy of medical science in conquering the ravages of venereal diseases, and the wide-spread knowledge of contraceptive devices have served also to make the need for an emphasis on human relations imperative. The control of physical factors, when and if it is accomplished, is by no means the whole story. Ignorance, irresponsibility, and a materialistic philos-

*Dr. Kirkendall is now Specialist in Health Education in the United States Office of Education, Division of Physical Education and Health Activities, assigned from the United States Public Health Service. He is working with schools and colleges in the field generally designated as social hygiene, sex education, or health in human relations. Dr. Kirkendall is very desirous of hearing from teachers or schools doing work in this field.

ophy will still exact their social toll—a point we are prone to overlook. The pressure of the war emergency has resulted in many persons regarding prostitution as undesirable chiefly because it spreads venereal infection. Yet prostitution, due to its heavy social cost, was recognized as a social cancer long before it was recognized as a conveyor of venereal diseases. A concentration on physical health alone results in a one-sided emphasis.

The necessity for building social responsibility, personal pride, a clear understanding of human interrelations, and establishing individual and social values means that "sex education" as many persons think of it, no longer meets the needs of the times. To many persons "sex education" meant the old "facts of life" lecture approach; emphasis on the horrors of venereal diseases; concentration on sex information to the exclusion of interest in attitudes and adjustments in personal and family life; morbid consideration of the physiological aspects of sex and its abnormalities; hushed tones, bated breath, and lurid tales; or severe warnings against thinking about sex matters.

All intelligent parents are properly concerned with the effects of such an educational procedure upon their children. They want to avoid morbidity, the development of conflicts, or dangerous experimentation. They want their children to develop normally, free from damaging inhibitions, and to have the optimum chance for living a successful personal and family life. With these aspirations everyone is in full accord. The way to achieve positive values is to embark upon a positive program. No informed educator now espouses a program which is built on the concepts mentioned in the paragraph immediately above. No separate or special "sex" courses are advocated. Instead, the emphasis is on integrating materials into the various courses of the curriculum, so that the information is used in providing answers to important questions. The emphasis is on helping the pupils learn to live effectively and constructively, and not on sex as such.

For example, a biology class studying the functioning of the glandular system would certainly leave their study with an incomplete understanding if they omitted those glands concerned with reproduction and sexual activity, and their effect upon the body and behavior. Yet if the class work was properly organized around the object of understanding body functioning they would be studying the glandular system, *not sex as such*.

A class in social studies examining those institutions which exact a high social cost for their maintenance could hardly avoid a consideration of prostitution, its causes, and methods of control. Yet in this case they are studying the problems of the social system, *not sex as such*.

A class in home economics studying the proper education of children on various matters can hardly escape a consideration of the sex education of the small child. Yet they are dealing with the problems of the education of small children, *not sex as such*.

That is the essence of the health in human relations approach, as it is the essence of good teaching in English, biology, or history. We should teach pupils to write and speak effectively rather than teaching English. Teaching is set in the context of a problem and the discussion centers about the solution rather than about the subject. The purpose is not to evade or deny the existence of sex. The objective is to treat it openly and objectively in relation to the problem being studied. To isolate sex from aspects of normal living is a distort, and at the same time provides an opening for legitimate criticism. The integration of sex education materials into the curriculum is widely accepted as the way most likely to secure public acceptance.

SEVEN ITEMS OF EMPHASIS

The breadth of a desirable program has never been settled upon by an authoritative body, but it is broader than most people think. The seven main emphases which should be included in a comprehensive program are:

1. *Biological*—This emphasis would include an understanding of the reproductive processes, sex as a biological function, the influence of the glands upon sex behavior, the relation of mental viewpoint to physical urges, the nature of biological sex maturity, inheritance, and similar topics.

2. *Preparation for Marriage, Family Life, and Child Care*—This emphasis would include the points to consider in choosing a mate and thinking of marriage, the responsibility of various home members for making a stable and satisfactory family life, the place of children in the home, the sex education of children, and similar topics.

3. *Sociological*—This emphasis would include consideration of sex in its broad social aspects and implications. The place of the family as a social institution, the social significance of marriage and divorce, the cause and effects of divorce, the social costs of sexual misconduct, illegitimacy, and prostitution would be suitable topics to be included. The importance to society of having a strong family institution should be discussed, and the dangers to the community when the family is weak is an important subject. It is important that a positive viewpoint be maintained.

4. *Health*—This emphasis would include such topics as the relationship of sex to general physical and mental well-being, personal health as influenced by sexual deviations and certain sex practices, particularly masturbation, cleanliness and hygiene, the meaning of and adjustment to early and late maturity, and the dangers of venereal diseases.

5. *Personal Adjustments and Attitudes*—This emphasis would include much of the material contained in other emphases but the chief concern would be to apply the material to the needs of individuals. Such topics as premarital standards, boy-girl associations, personal sex habits and practices, the building of proper attitudes, worries and uncertainties about sex and its manifestations,

and personal development would be involved. Much of the material under this topic would be best given in a personal counseling relationship.

6. *Inter-Personal Relations*—Again much of the material included in this emphasis should come under other of the above headings. The emphasis is so important, however, and so commonly neglected that it seems necessary to call attention to it directly. The particular concern here would be to make an application in terms of the individual's relationships to other persons immediately and closely associated with him. The major objective would be to build a sense of social responsibility and a concern with the good adjustment of others. Such topics as an individual's responsibility to others and to society in premarital conduct, the spread of disease, the maintenance of good family relations in building a wholesome community, and the establishment of wholesome social associations would be considered. Strong emphasis should be placed upon the value of good personality in oneself and others, and the place of interests and accomplishments in firm and lasting friendships.

7. *The Establishment of Values*—This is an emphasis which is very hard to pin down in terms of specific topics, yet it is an exceedingly important one. The objective is to help the pupil to build some values to live by; some standards against which he could check when making important decisions, not only relating to sex but in any matter relating to the well-being of himself and others. Such considerations must be done subtly else they will seem to be "preachy" and "moralistic." To make such instruction didactic, dogmatic, and authoritarian is a sure way of alienating the interest of youth and of lessening the value of the educational process. Yet pupils need to think seriously on such questions as these: What are the ends for which we live? What is happiness? What brings us the most satisfaction in our associations with others? What responsibilities do we owe friends, parents, and society? What place has love, affection, physical pleasure, money, power, and fame as life values? From the standpoint of teaching, this is the most difficult emphasis, yet in the building of desirable standards of conduct the most important.

The right kind of an educational program must be concerned with far more than information. It must be concerned with such apparent intangibles as building attitudes and character. Under no circumstances does this mean a return to the over-reverential and maudlin sentimentalism that characterized efforts at sex education thirty years ago. It does not mean a return to tearful references to "sacred experiences," "speak only to your 'papa' or 'mama' about these delicate matters," or "carried under mother's heart." But it does mean an objective and honest recognition that there are today some serious and challenging social problems, the solution of which becomes the personal responsibility of each of us. We must also recognize that an honest sharing of responsibility, a good character, and a high sense of ethical values are essential in creating the better society in which we are all interested.

OUTCOMES

The following outcomes should be hoped for once a comprehensive and adequate program of human relations education is underway:

1. *Improved personal adjustments and attitudes* should result.
2. *An increased awareness and a keener sense of social responsibility* should be one of the important outcomes. This should be evidenced in the concern which the individual manifests in his own personal conduct for the welfare of others, and in his willingness as an individual to stand for community improvement and general civic well-being.
3. *A clear understanding of human interdependence*, and the manner in which the happiness and well-being of individuals and groups are affected by social conditions and the actions of others.
4. *A motivation and an inspiration* to adjust in such a manner as to avoid situations inimical to one's own welfare, and in which others are exploited, is essential. This outcome is probably one of the most difficult to achieve, but unless it is, the value of other outcomes is lost.

OBSERVATIONS

The efforts of the school should be directed toward enabling the home to take a more responsible role in the education of youth than it has formerly taken. Consequently at the high-school level a strong "pre-parental" emphasis should be incorporated. While for most young people of high-school age their problems as parents are still somewhat remote, there is, nevertheless, a mounting interest in family life in the later part of the high-school period. Moreover, with many youth, high school closes their formal education. They should be encouraged to look forward to their role as parents and to aspire for success in that role.

In this field of education one is repeatedly enjoined to, "Start with the parents." This injunction is sound but much easier given than successfully acted upon. The parents of older children who have permitted barriers to separate them from their children can do little in the way of giving direct help to their boys and girls. The parents of younger children offer a much more fertile field for educational help and nursery schools, kindergartens, and elementary schools have an obligation to assist them. Only a small number of parents can be reached under current conditions.

The point at which to break into the circle most effectively seems to be in the high school where most of our youth are still enrolled. We lose our best chance to educate youth by neglecting the opportunity while they are with us. Later we futilely try to educate as parents those young people who left the schools improperly taught—and we are disappointed because we cannot reach them. The home will never take its rightful place as long as generation after generation of boys and girls are permitted—or required—to carry their ignorance, or what is often worse than ignorance, into adulthood.

The common impression seems to exist that instruction in health in human relations is very largely a responsibility of the health and physical education teachers, with perhaps a little assistance from the biology or home economics teachers. As the author meets with school people from place to place he is impressed with the fact that he practically always meets only the health and physical education people. It is good to have their support, but where are the others? Can't a good teacher of literature help? Hasn't the mathematics or social studies teacher a contribution to make? Actually social studies teachers have a real responsibility in achieving the important social objectives.

In fact, any teacher who can give the pupils a clearer insight into life and its values has a contribution to make. Several students have cited English classes as sources of much good instruction. Here through the use of fiction they are able to observe forces working out in the lives of people. The personality and individual insight and capacity of the teacher is more important than the subject he teaches.

WHO CAN DO THIS?

And this raises another issue. Are all teachers fitted to participate in this kind of an educational program? Obviously not. But to say that does not absolve the school from its educational responsibility, for after years of experience in this field the author is convinced, that, generally speaking, neither are parents, or religious leaders, or civic leaders adequately prepared. We simply must set about getting the proper preparation. In recognition of this situation, one of the major concerns in the recently inaugurated endeavor set up by the United States Public Health Service and the United States Office of Education is the development of programs of teacher training. This training is important for teachers of all levels, for the nursery schools and the elementary schools have an important part to play. Although only some teachers should be expected to participate actively, all should know enough about the program that they are not negative in their attitude and influence.

Our youth are more ready for positive and helpful instruction than we realize. They live in a world in which sex is spoken about freely on the part of everyone except those who might be naturally expected to give them adequate and understanding help. Most of them are inured to references to sex matters. The mention of sex does not throw them into an emotional dither. If some principal wants to check on this let him call in several of his more mature students and discuss with them their reactions to a school program which would meet their need in this field directly. Find some of their needs and sample their thinking. This is suggested as a challenge. In the author's educational work he has had occasion to talk to many hundreds of young people about their personal problems. They are honest, direct, and straightforward. They are much more objective and poised than most of the adults. James Thurber in his recently-published humorous satire, *Is Sex Necessary?*,

evidently had a similar point in mind when he included a chapter on "What Children Should Tell Their Parents about Sex."

The objections that youth are unready and that objective, honest, and comprehensive education will disturb them emotionally, are advanced by people who have never worked with young people. People who have had experience almost invariably testify to the objectiveness of youth, and their sincere desire to think through their problems from all viewpoints.

Recently the author started making a compilation of evidence to show what the results of an objective, well-planned education is. Over and over the evidence shows that carefully planned programs have been accepted, enthusiastically so, by both pupils and parents; that pupils are unanimous in their agreement that instruction is needed; that it is helpful in establishing better attitudes and a more wholesome outlook upon matters of adjustment; that practically always instruction comes too late to be of maximum value; and that experience with salacious jokes, risque conversation, and pornographic literature is well-nigh universal, and definitely harmful in that the result is the stimulation of physical desire and undesirable attitudes. There are few points in education upon which evidence is as definite and overwhelming as these, yet we ignore it, preferring to observe the existing irrational taboos.

Communities are remarkably ready to support school programs. The bugaboo of parental objections has not materialized, particularly in schools in which the health in human relations approach has been used. In fact when some respected leader takes the initiative a remarkable amount of support is usually found to exist. The key to success is to center interest about positive personal and social living, and to integrate materials naturally into the curriculum as an integral part of the work now being offered.

While this is written in terms of postwar education, this is not something to be left for the postwar period. Interest is now keen, the need is great, and public opinion strongly supports positive effort in this field. In this instance it is a case of accepting a current opportunity, and beginning a program which will yield returns both now and later.

Obviously a program of this breadth and with the suggested outcomes cannot be the responsibility of one person, nor accomplished in one year, nor even relegated to one institution. It becomes a continuous educational process, begun early and continued through the years of childhood, youth, and adulthood. The home, the school, and the church have a place in the program as do such forces as newspapers, commercialized amusements, recreational facilities, and numerous other factors. In postwar plans the "facts of life" sex education given to mute and tense audiences in one period is utterly untenable, but a consideration of the broad human relations implications is essential.

Nurses for Tomorrow's Needs

JEAN HENDERSON

Federal Security Agency, Division of Nurse Education, Washington, D. C.

PERHAPS the most difficult task confronting secondary-school principals today is that of vocational guidance. The job of the guidance counselor is one which has developed greatly in the past decade. Much has been accomplished but much still remains to be done if there are to be fewer round pegs in squares holes.

The young woman of today, her emotions swayed by conflicting appeals from a variety of professions is a particularly vulnerable position. Her patriotism is at its peak, yet, wisely, she realizes that there will be many years of peace for which she must be equipped. She turns to her guidance counselor for advice, trusting him to direct her into channels where she will be contributing to the war-effort, and at the same time preparing for the years after victory.

Nursing offers the four most important features of a successful and satisfying career—a personal satisfaction that can be gained only in work that is truly needed and useful; almost unlimited opportunities for professional advancement; good financial rewards; a war job that will not end with the war but has a future stretching ahead through the years.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR NURSES

Professional opportunities for the graduate nurse are manifold. Her work runs on parallel, not conflicting, lines with the doctor's who is more highly trained than ever before in medical history. There is increasing emphasis on the co-operation between them. The nurse helps administer new forms of treatment, many of which require that she be in constant attendance. Again, special problems in medical science may arise that demand the co-operation and understanding of the intelligent, well-educated nurse.

With the growth of group hospitalization plans, an increasing number of people are availing themselves of hospital care, and minor ailments are being treated before they become major illnesses. More hospitals will have to be built to meet this demand. More hospitals mean more teachers, administrators, and supervisors—all positions requiring advanced nursing education, which frequently includes academic courses already completed by college women.

Federal and state governments are recognizing that great areas in this country have low health standards. Surgeon General Thomas Parran, of the U. S. Public Health Service, has said that, based on localized studies, the 4F's of the next war can be picked out from school records of present school child-

ren. Selective Service records of rejectees in this war were compared with public school health records of the rejectees fifteen years before. The majority of these defects were apparent then and might easily have been cured had they been treated in time.

Here is the place for the public health nurse—the nurse who can teach people how to eat for health, how to be clean, how to keep from getting ill, how to build resistance against disease. Postwar plans have been drawn up to increase public health services all over the country, especially in sub-standard areas. Nurses will be needed in great numbers to plan and administer these services and to staff the necessary clinics and health centers.

Another phase of public health work is industrial nursing. In the past, this was considered solely a first aid job. Now, with larger numbers of less-skilled persons working under tremendous pressure in factories and war plants, it has been found expedient to employ staffs of well-prepared physicians and nurses. Their duties are multiple. They teach nutrition and health. They investigate home situations which interfere with workers' productivity. They suggest ways and means to prevent illness and accidents, and thereby insure maximum production because the worker is enjoying optimum health.

As a result of the war, there will be scores of veterans in need of specialized treatment. There will be wounded men, men physically handicapped for a long period of time, men who are mentally ill—all requiring skilled care. Wounded and ill servicemen deserve the best that medical science can give them. They will get it. Most of them will be rehabilitated to take their rightful places in their homes and in the world. Others will require permanent care. A large number of nurses will be needed to provide these services.

Even before the war, psychiatric patients were not receiving the amount of professional nursing care needed to carry out effective programs for their restoration. Psychiatrists now serving with the Armed Forces know that skilled care to cure the neuroses of war will be imperative for many men returning from battle areas.

America is also taking an increased interest in the handicapped. One example of this is the new treatment for infantile paralysis. Such activities will increase as fresh discoveries and techniques are applied and as new steps are taken to protect children against the disabilities of childhood diseases.

A number of Federal non-military agencies offer interesting opportunities for nursing service. In addition to the Veterans' Administration, whose work has already been described, there are the U. S. Public Health Service, the Children's Bureau, the Farm Security Administration, the War Relocation Authority, and the Office of Indian Affairs.

Many a nurse will choose a career as wife and mother. Here, again, she has a splendid opportunity to use her professional education. Her background and training have equipped her to do a superior job as homemaker, wife and

mother—and good citizen as well. She has developed the ability to maintain successful human relationships so important in community life. She has learned to be adaptable when confronted with sudden changes in environment or fortune. She can give her family the benefits of her knowledge of hygiene, nutrition, and the maintenance of good health. Her training in neatness, efficiency, and orderly work habits, contribute to her success in running her home. Along with her technical training, she has developed a capacity to work with others—a capacity for genuine leadership, which makes her invaluable as a community worker. She understands the “other fellow’s point of view,” health promotion, and active citizenship.

The work done by nurses is as old as mankind and as new as tomorrow’s medical treatment for today’s war-born diseases. The graduate nurse of today—product of a scientific and co-ordinated curriculum which often includes a collegiate liberal arts education—has come a long way since the time when only gentle hands, a soothing manner, or an infinite trust in God were considered ample qualifications for practice.

There are, perhaps, more glamorous careers than nursing for a young woman. But certainly, there are none more dramatic. In war and in peace, the nurse is the custodian of the crises of life from birth to death. There are few other fields in which a woman can be as honestly confident that she is contributing to real human betterment. A nurse can be satisfied that hers is a vital job, as vital as general education, medicine, and the other sciences. She can be confident that through the application of her knowledge and skills, the world can become a better place. That is a satisfaction few careers can offer.

THE NEED FOR NURSES

There are many war jobs of which the country now is acutely aware. Most of them are jobs for the duration. But nursing is essentially and constantly woman’s work. The nurse whose health is good, and who keeps up with the times, can be assured of continuing in war and peace.

Even before the war there were not enough nurses in this country to insure adequate health protection. The war did not create the shortage of nurses—it only emphasized the seriousness of the situation.

Late in 1942, the shortage had become critical. The Armed Services were calling for thousands more graduate nurses each month. Nurses were leaving hospitals and institutions for active duty with the Army or Navy or for essential civilian duty elsewhere. From all over the country reports poured into Washington telling of hospital wards closed—patients turned away for lack of adequate nursing personnel.

Leaders in nursing and hospital fields conferred with those government agencies most directly concerned with the acute nursing shortage. Out of these conferences evolved the Bolton Act, introduced before the House of Re-

representatives by Mrs. Frances P. Bolton, Congresswoman from Ohio. When Congress unanimously passed the Act the urgent request of leaders in health, hospital, and nursing fields, the U. S. Cadet Nurse Corps was established in the office of the Surgeon General, U. S. Public Health Service, Federal Security Agency. Its purpose was to prepare more nurses more rapidly without sacrificing the quality of the professional education offered by the nation's schools of nursing.

SCHOLARSHIPS FOR NURSES

A Cadet Nurse receives an all-expense scholarship in nurse education in any one of the more than 1,000 participating schools of nursing. She may select the school to which she wishes to apply. Her scholarship covers tuition, books and fees, room, board, and hospital and the official outdoor uniforms of the Corps. In addition, she is given a monthly spending allowance ranging from \$15 to a maximum of \$30 a month.

Many schools of nursing participating in the Corps program are collegiate schools offering a combined curriculum of liberal arts and nurse education which leads to a degree. In these schools, Corps scholarships apply only to the professional part of the curriculum. Scholarships are available from other sources to cover the preprofessional courses. Information on these may be obtained from the Dean of Women at the college selected. In return for her scholarship in Nursing Education, the Cadet Nurse promises that, health permitting, she will remain in essential nursing—either civilian or military—for the duration of the war. The choice is hers.

Although the U. S. Cadet Nurse Corps was established as a war measure, the program will not close automatically with the cessation of hostilities. All young women enrolled in the Corps ninety days before the war ends will be entitled to complete their nurse education under the Corps program.

Potential leaders are needed in every profession today and nursing is no exception. Although basic qualifications for admission to the Corps require that a candidate be between seventeen or eighteen—depending upon state and school regulations—and thirty-five, minimum requirements are a graduate in good standing from an accredited high school and in good health. Initiative, resourcefulness, tact, and a sense of responsibility are important characteristics for a successful nursing career. A genuine desire to be of service and a sincere interest in humanity are of paramount importance. In addition, prospective students must meet the entrance requirements of schools of nursing they wish to enter.

COUNSELORS CAN HELP

In every high-school class there are several young women for whom a college education is clearly indicated. Among these there will be one or two who possess all the qualifications for leadership in the field of nursing.

It is of the utmost importance that these be carefully guided toward a collegiate school of nursing in order that they may develop fully their potential qualities of leadership.

The Division of Nurse Education recognized long ago the importance of the role of guidance counsellors in its work. Theirs is a threefold function—the preliminary screening of the potential student nurse, the direction of her study courses to meet the scholastic requirements of her chosen school of nursing, and the keeping alive of her enthusiasm and interest in nursing.

The U. S. Cadet Nurse Corps Pledge Plan—has been developed to maintain the interest and enthusiasm of qualified high-school juniors and seniors. But the pledge plan alone cannot do the job. The influence of the guidance counselor is a vital factor.

With the student who will go directly into a hospital school of nursing or into a collegiate program where nurse education starts in the first year, this task is not so difficult. She sees her goal in the immediate future. But the young woman who will have one or two years in the liberal arts before she enters a collegiate school of nursing must be so well advised on the opportunities in nursing and the necessary pre-college preparation that she will pursue her chosen course to the end. Her problem presents a challenge to the guidance counselor, a challenge which many of them have already accepted with enthusiasm and alacrity.

More detailed information on the opportunities in nursing as a lifetime career and on the U. S. Cadet Nurse Corps may be obtained by writing the National Nursing Council for War Service, 1790 Broadway, New York, 19, New York. Individual students wishing information on the Corps should write the U. S. Cadet Nurse Corps, Box 88, New York, 8, New York.

Freedom of the Press Week—November 19-25

The American Library Association Executive Board has proclaimed a *Freedom of the Press Week* for libraries to run from November 19-25. These dates are chosen because they include the tercentenary of Milton's *Areopagitica* and the 250th anniversary of Voltaire's birth. *Freedom of the Press Week* affords libraries the opportunity of taking a stand on the absolute right of the individual to read anything of public value and interest, whatever racial, political, and religious issues may be involved, so long as national security is not endangered.

Libraries have a double responsibility for creating an informed public opinion about threats to freedom of the press. It is always a primary duty of libraries to stimulate thought on important issues.

Let your library take the lead in your community in protesting infringement of freedom of the press.

Recruiting Teachers Through Co-operative Education

L. O. BROCKMANN

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THE TRAGEDY of the lack of prospective teachers for the teaching profession is all the greater when we realize that the schools have allowed so many capable youth to go through school without appreciating how helpful it would have been if these young people had been given an opportunity to assist in a program of organized work experience or co-operative education. Within the classrooms of this country are youngsters who work with fellow students and teachers easily and well. They could be given some responsibilities by teachers which would gradually awaken their interests in the teaching profession.

Teachers from the kindergarten through the college have not worked together in noting or recording those behavior patterns of children and youth which are evidences of the ability to lead and to teach others. Very few high schools have utilized co-operative education as a means of giving pupils a real opportunity to find out whether or not they might like teaching, or any other occupation for that matter. Probably not to exceed four hundred high schools out of the twenty-eight thousand in the United States have co-operative education programs.

Here and there throughout the country are a few high schools, and junior colleges, which have seen in the co-operative education movement the opportunity to vitalize an educational program and especially to interest young people in teaching. It can be done. One high school has found that over a period of fourteen years it has interested, through this teaching program, over fifty seniors in teaching. Pupils are enthusiastic. "It got me interested in teaching," one pupil relates. "In college it helped me to understand educational psychology from a teacher's point of view," said another graduate, "for out of my high-school experiences I recalled many situations which now are more clearly understood." Still another said, "It helped me to understand children even though I plan to teach on the high-school level." Other values from a pupil point of view could be given. The steps in developing a program on the high-school level might be somewhat as listed below.

STEPS IN ORGANIZING THE PROGRAM

STEP ONE: Hold a faculty meeting in which the possibilities of this program are explained and discussed, not only from the standpoint of recruiting teachers, but also from the point of view of sound educational procedure.

STEP TWO: Have the program approved by the board of education.

STEP THREE: Interpret it to pupils, parents, and the community through such mediums as class announcements, school paper, local newspaper, radio and civic clubs. Have teachers suggest its possibilities to senior pupils who have the potential ability to develop into good teachers. All teachers from the kindergarten through the high-school grades, should begin to record examples of pupil behavior patterns which indicate an ability to teach. This material should go into the pupil's record to be used later by the co-ordinator in counseling with pupils.

STEP FOUR: Set up the necessary minimum administrative machinery as follows:

- A. Select a teacher or guidance worker to act as the co-ordinator of the program. Make him responsible for administering the details of the program, for selecting the pupils in co-operation with other teachers, and for interpreting the program to the participating pupils. This interpretation on the high-school level would be one of broad educational experience with all its implications rather than a narrow training program.

- B. Arrange the participating pupils' schedule somewhat as follows:
First period—Regular school subject.

Second period—Study hour or regular school subject or activity.

Third period—Occupational-relations class taught by the co-ordinator. Here co-operative education is interpreted and related instruction is given. If the group is small this might be done on a conference basis several times a week rather than each day.

Fourth, fifth, and sixth periods—(presumably in the afternoon)

Have pupils assist teachers in kindergarten through the eighth or ninth grade. Have the supervising teachers stress the elements of child and classroom management, instructional technique, co-curriculum activities, and clerical work. Let the pupils assist wherever they can. It is surprising what high-school pupils, anxious to learn about teaching, can do under the competent guidance of an helpful, interested teacher. Actual cases are on record where pupils have taken over classes when teachers were sick, helped small groups of children who were themselves absent, and many other activities.

- C. Allow credit for the co-operative education phase of the work. Two semester credits might be given for three hours daily of co-operative education.
- D. Have the co-ordinator, in co-operation with the supervising teacher, check the progress of each pupil about every ten days. Have him hold individual and group conferences with pupils to help them develop interest, wholesome attitudes, and elementary ability in teaching. On the high-school level it is comparatively easy to develop

the spirit of service in youth, so essential for success in teaching. Co-ordinators among many other things should also assist pupils select colleges favorable to this idea for advanced training.

STEP FIVE: Evaluate the program periodically. Follow students who go to teachers colleges to get their reactions to the program. Make changes in curriculum and procedures based on evaluations.

VALUES DERIVED FROM THE PROGRAM

Programs of this nature have shown that high-school students do become interested in teaching. They provide the opportunity to try out a pupil's abilities while still in high school. Pupils report that it gives them an opportunity to work with adult teachers in a real occupational situation. Presidents of teachers colleges who have had the opportunity to work with graduates of a high school providing this program, say that these pupils understand the subjects basic to teaching much better than other pupils. Teachers and administrators who launch a program of this nature will get much personal satisfaction in sharing their experiences in a joint activity with youth.

Are You Interested in Research?

The School of Education of Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas, through one of its graduate students, is making a study of the high schools that have had an outstanding number of senior boys who passed the V-12 examinations in the spring and fall of 1943 and the spring of 1944. Principals of schools who had more than twenty-five senior boys pass the V-12 tests while in attendance are requested to send the name of the school to Dr. C. A. Nichols, Head of the School of Education, Southern Methodist University, Dallas 5, Texas. Schools interested in getting a summary of the findings of the study should so indicate in their letter to Dr. Nichols.

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Schools are urged to take advantage of the service offered by the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

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CONSUMER EDUCATION STUDY

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
1201 SIXTEENTH STREET, N. W.

WASHINGTON 6, D. C.

Teaching Dramatic Arts in the Secondary Schools

ERNEST BAVELY

Chairman, Secondary School Committee, American Educational Theatre Association, and Editor of The High School Thespian magazine, Cincinnati, Ohio.

THE RESURGENCE of American life which followed the cascading of Japanese bombs on Pearl Harbor has extended far beyond recognition of an acute need for national security and triumph over the enemy. The historian of tomorrow will record these critical war years as a period of discovery and self-evaluation. The impact of war and the need for an enduring peace are revealing that which is superficial, sterile, and unworthy in our way of life. That which seems as confusion of thought, rejection of principles, and violation of standards, is, in reality, a re-appraisal of the old order and a process of re-adjustment and orientation to the new. Only to the historically blind and to the unthinking is the present confusing and chaotic.

The far-reaching effects of this process of self-appraisal and re-adjustment on our educational system are already being felt. The weaknesses, deficiencies, and maladjustments found in our educational program—a program which, admittedly, a few years ago seemed well-nigh perfect—are being brought to light by the stress of wartime conditions and demands. Selection of men for the Services is exposing the errors and faults of a physical education program which glorified competitive sports largely at the expense of a vastly broader program for all youth. Instruction methods and procedures in the learning of foreign language as now employed by our Armed Forces, focus attention upon teaching methods in our educational system which have failed to keep pace with the times. Achievement tests which so many of us regard as an infallible medium for determining the worth of our students, are found largely inadequate by our Armed Services, and are being replaced by new tests and measurements which discover traits, aptitudes, and capacities. Training in the broad field of the communication arts—English, speech, writing, and the like—is given primary recognition in the making of effective fighting personnel, while, in many of our school systems, some of these essential activities are either ignored completely, rated as frills, or de-vitalized by incompetent instruction.

CHANGES NEEDED FOR POSTWAR EDUCATION

The greatest changes in postwar education will, undoubtedly, occur in our elementary and secondary schools. These changes will force the elimination of old principles and concepts affecting subject content, instruction methods, and goals. In this new program, the teaching of dramatic arts on a broad basis to the majority of our young people must be recognized. This addition to our education process must not be viewed as a product forced by some

pressure group, but accepted as the answer to modern social and educational demands which confront our youth.

The term "dramatic arts" in the postwar educational program must be broadly defined to include a basic "consumer's" study and knowledge of radio and television, and the motion pictures, as well as a study of the theatre arts—acting, stagecraft, production—and dramatic literature. It will not be premature or out of focus to offer this training, in modified form perhaps, in the lower grades of our elementary schools, for children are vastly more sensitive to the influences and powers of the theatre, radio, and motion pictures, than many of us older people realize or are willing to admit.

A more inclusive and integrated course of study in dramatic-arts appreciation must be established at the secondary-school level, for we know only too well the tremendous power and fascination of radio, motion pictures, and the theatre on the adolescent mind. How vastly more all-controlling this power and fascination will grow with the advent of television on a nation-wide basis is already being foreseen by some of our educational and social leaders. A semester's course, preferably given during the freshmen or sophomore year of school, should be the minimum required of all students. Advance courses and activities on an elective basis, offering a wide range of opportunities for creative projects to interested students, should also be given in accordance with the needs and facilities of the school.

Every American boy and girl who must live in this modern world in which motion pictures, radio, and the theatre play so tremendous a role, must have, as part of their practical knowledge for everyday living, standards of evaluation and discrimination so that they may determine for themselves what constitutes good and desirable dramatic material for their cultural development and enjoyment. Training to create and widen the range of these critical faculties is a responsibility our schools must assume in view of modern demands and conditions.

DRAMATIC ARTS LITTLE STRESSED

It should be observed, in passing, that a few schools provide, at present, some instruction in dramatic arts, but this is largely irregular, often unbalanced, and left to a great extent to the preferences and direction of some interested faculty member. Few indeed are the schools where this training is well-organized and integrated as part of the educational process. In some schools training in dramatics is confined to the production of a few stage plays, with little or no consideration given to the study of motion picture and radio appreciation. In a few other schools we find courses in motion-picture appreciation, largely the pet project and creation of interested teachers, with little or no attention given radio appreciation, and not infrequently sponsored at the expense of what was at one time a class in dramatics. When radio appreciation is taught, it is not uncommon to find motion-picture study completely ignored.

This situation is complicated, furthermore, by the regrettable fact that such instruction may be given by members of anyone of the school departments. Radio activities may be "taught" and directed by a teacher from the science department, motion-picture study is in charge of a teacher of English, while dramatic activities are supervised by the teacher of speech.

It should also be pointed out that, of these three phases of dramatic arts—theatre, motion pictures, and radio—the production of plays finds at present the greatest popularity among our schools. Next comes some form of motion-picture study, but the number of schools so affected is nowhere near the number which produces stage plays. Least represented is the teaching of radio appreciation and production. According to an article by Samuel G. Gilbert in *High Point Magazine*, "a spot check of the work in the approximate 600 elementary schools and the 82 junior high schools in New York City's progressive educational system will show that still, in some few schools—radio has never been invented."³ The same situation prevails in scores of senior high schools across America—schools which boast of their progressive programs. Fortunately, here and there we find a school system which is fully aware of the need for training in radio appreciation, as well as for those more advanced activities such as program planning and broadcasting. The public school system of Cleveland, Ohio, is one of those pioneering systems to which one can look for direction and inspiration.

STUDY AND RESEARCH NECESSARY

If we are prepared to include in the postwar educational program the teaching of dramatic arts as here defined, no time should be lost in conducting, now, the study and research necessary to establish the foundations upon which this teaching should rest. While this responsibility should be entrusted to a group of educators best qualified for the task, the experiences and views of all interested groups should be considered. Social and recreational agencies, organizations representing the educational theatre, motion picture industry, radio, business, labor, and the church, should be consulted. We must not lose sight of the fact that, like the teaching of other subjects, instruction in dramatic arts goes far beyond the mere acquisition of knowledge by our young people; we are concerned with the greater problem of preparing youth for living in a new, democratic order.

What direction should this study and research take? First, consideration should be given to recreational needs in postwar America. Closely associated with this social problem is that of giving expression to creative impulses as the foundation for happier and greater living by our people. Equally essential is the need for teaching democratic principles, attitudes, and ideals to young people. Fourth, stands the need of establishing standards of evaluation and appreciation of the dramatic arts.

³Quoted from the Service Bulletin of the Federal Radio Commission for April, 1944.

TRAINED PERSONNEL NEEDED

The formulation of educational and social goals for the teaching of dramatic arts must be followed by the establishment of courses and activities through which this teaching may be best accomplished. A basic course in dramatic-arts appreciation, as has been previously indicated, should constitute prerequisite training for all other activities, curriculum and extracurriculum. The importance of properly qualified instructors must not be minimized. The postwar program should call for at least one "dramatic-arts director" in each school, just as we have today in many schools a "music director" and a "physical education director." This person must possess a broad, practical knowledge of the elements and techniques of the drama and the stage, radio and television, and motion pictures. No less essential is the ability and the knowledge to teach dramatic arts to our young people.

To those, in and out of our educational system, who may be prone to regard the teaching of dramatic arts as defined and proposed here, as an educational frill and as a further burden upon an already over-taxed school program, it should be stated that the postwar emphasis upon technical training—and military perhaps—can easily produce a nation of people with one-sided interests—an unhappy and dissatisfied people at best. Headmaster Leonard F. Wallis of the Willeaden County School, London, England, so aptly states it, "We must train the artistic and emotional faculties of our pupils, as well as and equally with their reasoning powers."² And again, "We must sublimate the destructive energies into channels which are more socially desirable."

As we view the pro and con of the issues and questions raised by this article, it may be well for us all who are thinking of postwar educational reforms to ponder the wisdom contained in the following passage, taken from *Youth and the Future*,³ the General Report of the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education:

Yet a prophetic eye would perceive that the solution of the problem of leisure time is, in sober literal fact, one of the two or three keys without which we cannot unlock the doors to a decent human future. A seer would be appalled by the mistake we elders make in continuing to plan for the lives of the younger generation. And it does not need a prophet or seer to see our mistake. It needs only an ordinarily intelligent person of experience, willing really to look at the situation, to be staggered by the unwisdom of the preparation for life we give our young people, ignoring in it, as we do, the paramount importance to them of how they spend their free hours. Our educators struggle conscientiously to prepare our youth for what probably cannot be accurately foreseen in their future lives—the kinds of jobs in which they are going to have to earn their living. But they do not prepare them for what can with certainty be foreseen—that each one of them will have free time in his life, the use of which will largely determine the quality of the future man or woman.

²"Secondary Education in English," by L. F. Wallis, in the May issue, 1944, of *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*. Pages 24, 25.

³Pages 263-4.

The Philippines

Selected References for Teachers

C. O. ARNDT

Senior Specialist in Far Eastern Education, U. S. Office of Education,
Washington, D. C.

To meet the many requests from schools for teaching materials, aids, and references on the Philippine Islands, this list was prepared by Dr. C. O. Arndt, specialist in Far Eastern Education. Schools will find this list helpful in the selection of materials for such a study. Reprints are available through the U. S. Office of Education.—The Editor of THE BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association, Washington 6, D. C.

Four decades of intimate association has brought about a large measure of understanding and mutual respect between the peoples of the United States and the Philippines. This good relationship, it is believed, will continue long after victory is won and the Philippines have attained their promised freedom. To deepen the understanding which already obtains, the following selected list of references for teachers has been prepared.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES

Islands of the Pacific. A selected list of references. Washington, D. C.: The Library of Congress, Division of Bibliography. 1943. 181 pp. Free to libraries and institutions upon request.

This is a classified bibliography "designed to indicate modern and available sources of research on the Islands of Melanesia, Polynesia, and Micronesia." The amount of material on the Philippines is small. The bibliography is here listed because of teachers' possible interest in other islands of the Pacific. Recommended for teachers or school libraries.

The Philippines, A Popular List

The Philippines, General Bibliography

The Philippines, A List for High-School Students

The Philippines, A List for College Students

The Philippines, A List for the Armed Forces

The Philippines, A List for the Business Man

The Philippines, A List for Labor Unions

The Philippines, A List for Women's Clubs

The East and West Association, 40 East 49th Street, New York, N. Y. 1942. Price 10 cents each, except for the *General Bibliography* which is 15 cents.

These eight annotated bibliographies have been designed to meet the needs of various student and lay groups. Availability, usefulness, and quality were the criteria used in making selections.

BOOKS

Unless otherwise indicated, these books are written on the adult level.

Bulsan, Carlos. *The Voice of Bataan*. New York: Coward McCann. Published under the auspices of the American-Philippine Foundation, Inc. 1943. 28 pp. \$1.00.

A deeply felt poem written by a promising young Filipino artist.

Fernandez, Leandro H. *Brief History of the Philippines*. Boston: Ginn, 1932. 350 pp.

This short history textbook of the Philippines was written for use in the secondary schools of the Islands by a well-known Filipino historian.

Forbes, W. Cameron. *The Philippine Islands*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 1929. 2 vols. \$12.50.

This standard work, written by a former Governor-General of the Philippines, gives reliable, well-documented information about the history and government of the Islands, especially during the 20th century.

Hayden, Joseph R. *The Philippines: A Study in National Development*. New York: Macmillan. 1942. 984 pp. \$9.00.

This important volume is divided into five major parts: 1. People and Government; 2. Political Parties and National Leadership; 3. Education; 4. Problems of the Commonwealth; and 5. External Relations. It was written largely from primary and secondary historical sources. The author supplemented these sources by the rich experience which he gained through many years of life in the Philippines. He was vice-governor from 1933-35.

Ind, Allison. *Bataan, the Judgment Seat*. New York: Macmillan. 1944. 395 pp. \$3.50.

The author, a lieutenant colonel in the Army of the United States, here presents a frank, first-hand account of the battle for the Philippines.

Keesling, Felix M. *The Philippines: A Nation in the Making*. Shanghai: Kelly and Walsh. 1937. Distributed by the Institute of Pacific Relations, New York City. 137 pp. \$2.00. High School.

A readable description of the life and recent history of the Filipino people.

Malcolm, George A. *The Commonwealth of the Philippines*. New York: Appleton Century. 1936. 511 pp. \$5.00.

This book, dedicated to the Filipino people, presents a sympathetic study of them and of their culture. The development of their government to the status of a commonwealth is given major consideration. The author has spent many years in the Philippines.

Marquardt, Frederic S. *Before Bataan and After; A Personalized History of Our Philippine Experiment*. Indianapolis: Bobbs Merrill. 1943. 315 pp. \$2.75.

The role of American teachers in the development of the Philippines is given definite recognition by the author of this readable book. Bataan, he believes, has vindicated our policy in the Philippines and some of its elements might well be adapted to other countries and peoples of the Far East in the days that lie ahead.

McGowney, Dudley O. *Stories of Long Ago in the Philippines*. Philippine Education Series. New York: World Book. 1925. Revised edition. 128 pp. Lower elementary.

This collection of historical events and legends was written in the first decade of this century for use in the lower elementary schools of the Philippines.

Porter, Catherine. *Crisis in the Philippines*. New York: Alfred Knopf. 1942. 156 pp. \$1.50.

Readable and recent, this small book deals with such topics as: people, government resources, present war, and prospects of the future.

Rizal, Jose. *The Social Cancer (Noli Me Tangere)*. English version by Charles E. Derbyshire. Manila. Philippine Education Company. 1926. Available in many libraries.

In this readable novel the author, who is the greatest national hero of the Philippines, presents a sharp critique of Spanish political and ecclesiastical abuses. Written toward the close of the 19th century, this critique exerted a wide influence toward political awakening among the people of the Philippines.

Romulo, Carlos P. *I Saw the Fall of the Philippines*. New York: Doubleday, Doran. 1942. 323 pp. illus. \$3.00. Senior High School and Adult.

An account of the determined defense of the Philippines against the Japanese based upon direct experience. The reasons for Filipino loyalty during this crisis are stated convincingly.

Romulo, Carlos P. *Mother America*. New York: Doubleday, Doran. 1943. 234 pp. \$2.50. Senior High School and Adult.

The author advocates that the policy of liberation followed by the United States government in reference to the Philippines be extended to all the peoples who may be returned to European powers after the war.

Villa, Jose Garcia. *Have Come, Am Here*. Poems by Jose Garcia Villa). New York: The Viking Press. 1942. 152 pp. \$2.00.

"Mr. Villa seems to me to possess one of the purest and most natural gifts discoverable anywhere in contemporary poetry. This accounts for his power to say quietly, the most astonishing and exalted things."—Mark Van Doren.

Wood, Esther. *Pedro's Coconut Skates*. New York: Longmans, Green. 1938. Illus. 191 pp. \$1.50. Lower elementary.

An interesting story of the home life and adventures of a Filipino boy whose insatiable curiosity causes some difficulties but finally results in a satisfactory outcome.

PAMPHLETS

These pamphlets are written on the high-school and adult levels.

America's Pledge to the Philippines. Washington, D. C.: The Department of Information and Public Relations, Commonwealth of the Philippines, 1617 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W. 1943. 7 pp.

The text of President Roosevelt's broadcast to the Philippines on August 13, 1943, is here reprinted. Editorial comment about the address by leading United States newspapers is also given.

Biggerstaff, Knight. *The Far East and the United States*. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press. 1943. 60 pp. 40 cents.

This bulletin includes (1) an interpretative analysis, (2) a brief list of selected readings, (3) study and discussion questions, and (4) activities for pupils. The analysis, written primarily for teachers, suggests lines of discussion which they may develop in their American history courses. The study and discussion questions are designed to help teachers in preparing lesson plans and units on the Far East in relation to the United States, and to suggest important topics for development in such materials. The activities suggest "things to do" which will bring out the main points of this country's relations with the Far East in such a way as to lend interest and stimulus to the study. The Philippines are accorded specific treatment on pp. 22 ff.

Clark, E. A. *Peoples of the China Seas*. St. Louis: Webster Publishing Company. (Co-operative project between American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations and Webster Publishing Company.) 1942. 94 pp. illus. 40 cents.

Chapter VII, pp. 57-77 of this popularly written pamphlet is addressed to the Philippines. The people, products of the country, American policy, and the importance of economic independence are among the topics discussed.

Cook, Katherine M. *Public Education in the Philippine Islands*. Washington 25, D. C.: Division of Special Problems, U. S. Office of Education. Bulletin 1935, No. 9. 53 pp. 10 cents.

Describes the public school system, its initiation and development following American occupation, and its contribution to independent government. It was prepared for educators and others interested in the United States to familiarize them with school facilities and educational conditions in the Philippine Islands. English is the basic language used in the schools throughout the country.

Dulles, Foster R. *Behind the Open Door*. St. Louis: Webster Publishing Company. 1944. 92 pp. illus. 40 cents.

The relationships between the United States and the Far East, including China, Japan, and the Philippines, are sketched in simple but interesting language in this pamphlet. The prospects of the future, too, are explored. Discussion questions have been developed for each chapter.

Philippines. In *Ten Unconquered Allies*. New York: United Nations Information Office, 610 Fifth Avenue. 1943. pp. 29-32. Available at nominal cost. A brief description of the Philippine government now situated in the United States, and the contributions of the Philippines to the war effort as one of the United Nations are given.

Porter, Catherine. *The Filipino's Country*. New York 22: Institute of Pacific Relations, 1 East 54th Street. 1944. 64 pp. illus. 25 cents.

The problems of the Philippines during the pre-war period and those which confronts her after the war are carefully considered in this popularly written pamphlet.

Quezon, Manuel L. *Report to the Filipino People*. Washington 6, D. C.: The Department of Information and Public Relations, Commonwealth of the Philippines, 1617 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., 1943. 10 pp. Free. This report was originally prepared as a broadcast to the people of the Philippines on February 20, 1943. It was authorized in advance by President Roosevelt.

ARTICLES

These articles are written on the adult level.

Osmena, Sergio. *Philippine-American Collaboration*. Reprinted from the *Congressional Record* of the 78th Congress, January 17, 1944. Available upon request through the office of the Vice-President, Commonwealth of the Philippines, 1617 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W. Washington 6, D. C. The mutual benefits derived from collaboration during the past suggests its continuation in the days which lie ahead.

Osmena, Sergio. *Quezon of the Philippines*. In *Foreign Affairs*, January, 1943.

In this article the present Vice-President of the Philippines draws a strong character sketch of his lifelong friend and associate, President Quezon. He describes as well the transfer of the Philippine Government to Australia and finally to Washington.

Osmena, Sergio. *The United Nations and the Philippines*. In *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 3457 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, July 1943.

The import of the war effort of the Philippines for the United Nations and the potential services which its people and culture may contribute toward furthering international understanding in the post-war period are convincingly presented.

Porter, Catherine. *The Future of Philippine-American Relations*. In September, 1943, issue of *Pacific Affairs*. Published by Institute of Pacific Relations, Orange, Connecticut.

A timely article as we look to the future of the Philippines.

Quezon, Manuel L. *Christmas on Corregidor*. In *Liberty Magazine*, December 25, 1943.

This is the story not only of Christmas on bomb-racked Corregidor in 1941, but also of resistance by Filipino guerrillas to the Japanese so-called "New Order" in the occupied Philippines.

Southeastern Asia and the Philippines. In *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 3457 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, March, 1943.

The March 1943 issue of the *Annals*, which is devoted to Southeastern Asia and the Philippines, includes the following four valuable articles on the Philippines: (1) Southeastern Asia and the Philippines as a Market, Arthur R. Upgren; (2) Capital Investment in Southeastern Asia and the Philippines, Helmut G. Callis; (3) The Chinese in Southeastern Asia and the Philippines, Patricia G. Barnett; and (4) Outline of our Recent Political and Trade Relations with the Philippine Commonwealth, E. D. Hester.

FILMS

Useful for any age group above middle elementary level.

Manila. Nu-Art Films, Inc., 145 West 45th St., New York 19, N. Y., 1939. 1 reel. 16 mm. Sound. 10 minutes. Rental \$1.25.

An instructive, recent film which pictures modern commercial and social life in the capital of the Philippines. Superior photography.

The Philippine Islands. Revised 1942. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1841 Broadway, New York 23, N. Y. 1 reel. Silent. Cost \$24.00. Avail-

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able through many film libraries though not through Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc.

This film shows market scenes, house boats, motor and steamship transportation, as well as the cultivation of rice, cocoanut trees, sugar cane, and hemp. Valuable for general information about the Philippines.

Pledge to Bataan. Adventure Films, Inc., 1560 Broadway, New York, N. Y., 1941. 6 reels. 16 mm. Sound. Technicolor. 60 min. Rental cost based on school enrollment.

"*Pledge to Bataan* is an impressive visual document of the Philippine Islands from the time of the Spanish conquest to the Japanese invasion with an introduction by President Quezon. All of the resources and industries of the islands are shown, those that have been in use for centuries and those recently developed. Emphasis is given to the American influence since 1898 with a distinct look ahead to freedom from the Japs and to independence. There are several shots of American officials such as Gen. MacArthur, Admiral Hart, Commissioner Sayre, Pres. Quezon, and others, but the main emphasis is on the Filipino people. The color photography is very good and the commentary is informative."—National Board of Review of Motion Pictures.

LOAN PACKET

Packet XXI-JSA-3. *The Philippines.* Available through Information Exchange, U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C. Revised in May, 1944. This packet on the Philippines contains various kinds of curriculum materials suitable for classroom use on the high-school level. Upon request it will be mailed without charge to schools for a loan period of two weeks. A franked label is provided for the return of the materials.

UNIT OF STUDY

Philippines: How Have Some Certain Cultures Contributed to the Development of the Santa Barbara Area? Instructional Material, Santa Barbara, California, Series II, No. 60, September, 1940. Available through inter-library loan from the Library, U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C. 19 pp. Fourth-grade level.

Content organized under problems, integrative experiences, materials, and culminating activities. Consideration is given to the nature of the people, their religious beliefs, and their forms of artistic expression. Can be readily adapted for use in other schools. Contains a comprehensive, annotated bibliography.

MAPS

The Far East and Adjoining Areas. New York: American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, 1 East 54th Street. 25 cents.

This large (34" x 48") colored map gives boundaries as of 1939 and indicates the location of natural resources by symbols. Rail- and motor-roads are sketched. The Philippines are shown in their Far Eastern context.

Forest Map of the Philippines. Manila: Department of Agriculture and Commerce. Limited supply available to schools at the Department of Information and Public Relations, Commonwealth of the Philippines, 1617 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

A large colored wall map which indicates the forest areas of the Philippines.

Picture Map of the Philippine Islands. Available through Friendship Press, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y. 50 cents. Elementary.

This large picture map (38" x 48"), sketched in black ink on white background, is designed for coloration. A supplementary picture sheet accompanies the map.

Southeast Asia and the Southwest Pacific. Available through Friendship Press, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y. 25 cents. 1944. A richly colored map, size 22½" x 34½".

PERIODICALS

Asia and the Americas (formerly *Asia*). Asia Magazine Inc., 40 East Forty-Ninth Street, New York, N. Y. Monthly. \$4.00.

A well-illustrated journal dealing with Far Eastern countries. It presents educational abstracts, book reviews, articles on art, culture, politics, and economics.

Bataan. Published and edited by Dr. Diosdado M. Yap, National Press Building, Washington, D. C. Monthly. \$3.00.

Presents articles on Philippine-American and United Nations affairs.

Philippines. Department of Information and Public Relations, Commonwealth of the Philippines, 1617 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Monthly. Free upon request.

News items, documents, book reviews, and lists of current literature are included. Illustrated.

Far Eastern Quarterly. Far Eastern Association, Inc., 450-454 Ahnaip Street, Menasha, Wis.; or, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. Quarterly. \$4.00.

Includes discussions of economic, political, and cultural developments arising out of the contact between the peoples of the West and the Far East. For the duration, it will "publish material bearing upon the basic, vital issues of war and peace in the Pacific." Features book reviews. An important bibliography appears in each issue.

Thailand

Selected References for Teachers

C. O. ARNDT

Senior Specialist in Far Eastern Education, U. S. Office of Education,
Washington, D. C.

To meet the many requests from schools for teaching materials, aids, and references on Thailand, this list was prepared by Dr. C. O. Arndt, specialist in Far Eastern Education. Schools will find this list helpful in the selection of materials for a study of Thailand. Reprints are available through the U. S. Office of Education.—The Editor.

Little is known in this country about Thailand, that rich, and until recently, free country of South-East Asia. To the end that it become better known to teachers and students the following list is offered.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Basic Bibliographies on India, and Southeast Asia. Robert Heine-Geldern and Horace I. Poleman. The American Council of Learned Societies, 1219 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. June 1944.

The authors have developed a reliable, quite complete bibliography of 1,500 references on India, Tibet, and Ceylon and 1,500 on Southeast Asia, including Thailand. The references listed are partly basic research items and partly popular in scope.

BOOKS

(Unless otherwise indicated, these books are written on the adult level).

Chandruang, Kumut, *My Boyhood in Siam*. New York: John Day. 1940. 226 pp. \$2.00. High School.

The author's life in his parental Thai home, with some comment about his educational experiences in the West are presented in this interesting book.

Credner, Wilhelm. *Siam, das Land der Thai*. Stuttgart: J. Engelhorn's Nachf. 1935.

Soils, topography, and the geography of Thailand are thoroughly treated. Available in most large libraries.

Graham, W. A. *Siam*. 2 vols. London: Alexander Moring, Ltd. 1924.

An over-all treatment of the life and culture of Thailand dealing with such subjects as ethnic background, economic development, religion, and political administration. Available in many large libraries.

Landon, Kenneth Perry. *The Chinese in Thailand*. New York: American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations. 1941. 310 pp. \$2.50.

"It is the purpose of this work to examine the social and economic condition and the legal status of the Chinese in Thailand today; and to evaluate those measures which the Thai government has introduced to limit the size of the Chinese community, to assimilate it as rapidly as possible, and to control its activities, particularly in commerce and trade. This has involved an examination of the contribution the Chinese have made to Thailand, the benefits they have derived from it, and the degree of their assimilation into the Thai nation." (Quoted from preface).

Landon, Kenneth Perry. *Siam in Transition*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1939. 328 pp. \$2.50.

This readable and dependable book is addressed to the study of trends toward modernization in Thailand, with emphasis upon the period following the revolution of 1932. Political, economic, educational, medical, and religious trends are among those considered. A lengthy bibliography is included.

Landon, Margaret. *Anna and the King of Siam*. New York: John Day. 1944. About 475 pp. \$3.50. High School.

An interesting, popularly written story of the people of Siam during the 1860's. The beginnings of such revolutionary social changes as the freeing of slaves, and the movement toward religious liberty are sketched into the narrative. The author has based her writing on thorough research.

Lasker, Bruno. *Peoples of Southeast Asia*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf. 1944. 288 pp. \$3.00.

"What kind of people are the Thai, the Burmans, the Indonesians, the Annamites, the Malays of the peninsula? How do they look at life? What will freedom and responsibility mean to men and women who have so long suffered alien rule? These are but a few of the questions which this book answers clearly and with authority."

Sowers, Phyllis Ayer. *The Lotus Mark*. New York: Macmillan. 1935. 110 pp. \$1.75. Upper elementary.

An interesting story of the home and wat (temple school) life of a Siamese boy. The author, who lived eight years in Siam, gives a sympathetic picture of Siamese life and customs.

Sowers, Phyllis Ayer. *Nam and Deng, A Boy and Girl of Siam*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell. 1933. 138 pp. \$1.50. Middle elementary.

A well-told story of the home life and adventures of a Siamese boy and his sister. Attractive illustrations add to the interest and color of the book.

Thompson, Virginia McLean. *Thailand: The New Siam*. New York: Macmillan. 1941. 865 pp. \$5.00.

The geography and history of the people of Thailand, its resources, industries, political and social structure, education and religion are systematically treated in this lengthy, rather academic volume. A valuable bibliography, largely of French and German sources, is included.

Wales, Horace Geoffrey Quaritch. *Years of Blindness*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell. 1943. 332 pp. \$3.00.

Thailand is given prominent consideration in this interestingly written story of the far-reaching changes which have developed in southeast Asia during the last two decades. The old conception of empire, the author holds, is doomed.

PAMPHLETS

Deignan, H. G. *Siam—Land of Free Men*. Washington, D. C.: Smithsonian Institution, 1943. 18 pp. Limited supply available to schools and libraries.

A small, illustrated pamphlet which describes the geography, history, and peoples of Thailand.

Clark, Elizabeth A. *People of the China Seas*. St. Louis: Webster Publishing Company, 1942. (Cooperative project between American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations and Webster Publishing Company). 94 pp. illus. 40 cents. High School.

Comments on Thailand and its people are woven into the fabric of several chapters of this popular pamphlet.

MAGAZINE ARTICLES

Andrus, J. Russell. "Japan's New 'Gifts' to Thailand," *Foreign Commerce Weekly* (September 4, 1943). pp. 3-9.

Japan has given Thailand several blocks of territory during recent years as a reward for her co-operation. The nature of these territories, their human and natural resources, are discussed in this illustrated article.

Chandruang, Kumut. "With My Father in Siam," *Asia* (November, 1940). pp. 604-607. High School.

The author briefly relates some of his experiences as a young boy in Thailand. Included are simple accounts of his school and home life, his companions, and friends.

Landon, Kenneth Perry. "Thailand," *Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science* (March 1943). pp. 112-119.

tegie location, its population, major races, government, social services, This readable article gives a concise, over-all picture of Thailand. Its strcommunications, agriculture, business, and finance are briefly discussed.

Landon, Kenneth Perry. "Thailand's Struggle for National Security," *Far Eastern Quarterly*, (August or November 1944), p. 45.

Political and economic trends in Thai life are sketched. Thailand's relations with outside powers and the development of her foreign policy are presented.

Landon, Margaret. "Anna and the King of Siam," *Asia and the Americas* (April-December 1943). High School.

This series of articles, which will soon appear in book form, gives a very readable description of the customs of the Thai people.

Menefee, Seldon C. "Thailand in Bondage," *Asia and the Americas* (November 1943). pp. 641-644.

The writer, who is, specialist in the field of radio propaganda, here describes the procedures employed by the Japanese to maintain control over the Thai government and its people during the present war.

FILMS

By-Ways of Bangkok. American Museum of Natural History, Central Park West at 79th St., New York City and Teaching Films Custodians, Inc., 25 West 43rd St., New York City. Available only to schools throughout the United States. 1 reel, sound 16 mm. Rental \$1.50. Junior-Senior High School.

This short film shows market scenes, river and street traffic, processions, and various forms of Thai sport. It presents a realistic picture of life in Bangkok.

Land of the Yellow Robe. Bell & Howell Co., 1801-1815 Larchmont Ave., Chicago 13, Illinois, 1935. 2 reels, sound. 25 min. 16 mm. Cost \$72.00. Rental \$3.00. Junior-Senior High School.

River and canal scenes as well as temples and graceful, ceremonial dances are featured in this film.

Siamese Journey. Bell & Howell Co., 1801-1815 Larchmont Ave., Chicago 13, Illinois, 1937. 2 reels, sound. 20 min. 16 mm. Cost \$72.00. Rental \$2.50. Junior-Senior High School.

This film gives a good over-all picture of old and new Thailand. Many street, sport, and animal scenes are shown.

News Notes

A GETTING READY FOR INDUCTION FILM—*Introduction to the Army* is a 40-minute Army Training Film (16 and 35 mm. Sound) which shows what happens to Johnny Jones, a typical American 18-year old, from the time he receives his "Greetings" from the President until he completes his basic training. The picture shows Johnny getting examined, sworn in and classified, taking physical and mental examinations, being fingerprinted, taking shots, getting his GI uniform, and being interviewed. It shows him doing the Army's "dirty work"—making beds, policing company streets, doing KP; learning to be a soldier—drilling, digging a fox hole, reading a military map, administering first aid, firing a rifle, performing under simulated battle conditions; getting his recreation—through the USO, Post Exchange, dances, sports, and shows; being cared for by the Army—through the Red Cross, the chaplain, Personal Affairs Officer, and company commander, medical and dental service, Army insurance, and family pay allotments.

The picture does not attempt to glamorize Army life, nor to make it ridiculous. It simply attempts to show the potential inductee what is likely to happen to him after he enters the Army; to answer questions which have been vexing him about Army procedures; to show him why things have to be done the "Army Way"; to dispel any ideas he may have that Army life is a "lark" but to reassure him that it is not so tough that he can't take it. Schools may obtain information concerning the film (TF 21-2067), *Introduction to the Army*, from the Pre-Induction Training Officer in their local Service Command headquarters. They are available free upon request from the local Service Command.

RADIO PROGRAMS LINKED TO WAR AND AFTERMATH—More than 200,000 teachers in every section of the United States and Canada have received by mail the Columbia Broadcasting System's 110-page manual detailing the 145 *American School of the Air* programs linked to the war and its aftermath. Additional copies, for educational organizations, libraries, parent-teacher groups, USO centers, and others, of the manual celebrating the 15th anniversary of American School of the Air, may be secured from the Columbia Broadcasting System, 485 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York.

USABLE REFERENCES FOR SPANISH TEACHERS—*Usable References for Teaching Spanish-Speaking Americans*, a six-page pamphlet prepared by Sarah K. Hepburn, is a recent publication of the Consumers League of Michigan, 222 Louise Avenue, Highland Park 3, Michigan. This material has been selected for its simplicity, its suitability of interest, and especially for its availability. Teachers in public schools, school superintendents, community leaders interested in Spanish-speaking Americans, and vacation school leaders will find here practical material to guide them in their task of seeing to it that Spanish-speaking Americans be taught their country's language, and through it, come into their common heritage, a good education. Because of the practical difficulties in securing teachers who speak Spanish, these references are all in English. It will be supplied in limited numbers to communities or organizations working with Spanish-speaking groups. For additional supply, single copies are priced at 10 cents each, and in packets of 25 or more, 5 cents each.

A STUDY OF MILITARY CONSCRIPTION—The American Council on Education is now engaged in a comprehensive study of the historical background of compulsory military service. The study, which is being financed by the Committee on Youth Problems of the Council, under the chairmanship of Henry I. Harriman, was requested by representatives of all the constituent members of the Council. Dr. Zook, president of the Council, said, "Inasmuch as several bills are now before the Congress proposing legislation to make mandatory one uninterrupted year of military training for young men of eighteen, the American people will soon be faced with the question of deciding whether this country needs continued universal

conscription. We must, therefore, have the light of experience upon which to base our decision. This matter, obviously, is one of particular concern to educators. We believe that the history of conscription throughout the world provides one sound basis for evaluating the present proposals." The conscription experiences of France, Germany, Russia, Switzerland, Sweden, Japan, and the United States will be analyzed. Particular attention is being given to the social impacts on government and education at all levels, and especially training for the professions. The report is to be published by the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C., in December of this year.

PARENT-TEACHER-STUDENT ASSOCIATION—The Classical High School of Springfield, Massachusetts formed an unusual organization in which parents, teachers, and students have combined in an attempt to secure co-operative effort on desirable school and community projects. The Executive Board is composed of four officers, four parents, two teachers, two students, and the principal. All meetings are held in the high school in the evening, four times during the year. One meeting is under the direction of the high-school student government. One of their projects was that of developing three creeds—one for parent, one for teachers, and one for students. Each one is short, and sets forth in terms of beliefs what is expected of each for the betterment of both school and community. The three creeds are found on the back cover of this issue of *THE BULLETIN*. William C. Hill is the principal of the school.

SPANISH TEACHERS AND STUDENTS—A new newspaper has recently appeared printed in Spanish. This newspaper contains eight pages, nine by twelve inches in size. It is entitled *Vocabulario* and is issued fifty times during the year. It appears approximately every week. The subscription price is \$1.50 a year for the fifty issues. Class subscriptions are at the rate of fifty cents per student for a single semester in groups of fifteen or more when mailed in a single wrapper. A semester extends for a term of twenty weeks during which time the newspaper is sent the subscribers.

Four of the pages are composed of information of general news type, while the other four pages are devoted entirely to elementary Spanish. The September issue began with a weekly Spanish translation of *Alice in Wonderland*, especially written in terms understandable by the elementary Spanish student. This publication is an excellent type and should become a real help to teachers of Spanish, as well as to students themselves. The material includes a variety of interests that readily appeal to students. The articles are arranged in terms of difficulty, thus providing for the various ranges of ability within any given class. Other features which make this publication especially adaptable for both teacher and pupil use are the plan whereby new words appear in bold-faced print and a vocabulary of new words, giving a good idiomatic English translation. Already the newspaper, in its short existence, has been enthusiastically received not only by school subscribers, but also by individual subscribers. Subscriptions are being received not only from professors of Spanish, but from individuals in almost every walk of life. The first twenty-one issues give every indication of a publication of high quality. Such a newspaper will undoubtedly receive wide recognition and will be widely used in the schools throughout the country where Spanish instruction is offered. Further information can be secured by writing to Mr. Peter Panfield, Business Manager, *Vocabulario*, 824 West King's Highway, San Antonio 1, Texas.

OUTLINE MAPS—The McKinley Publishing Company, 809-811 N. 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pennsylvania, has recently announced the publication of a large group of desk outline maps. It has been the aim of the publishers to build up a series of *Outline Desk Maps* so varied in style and size that they will meet practically all educational requirements. The drafting work on the maps has been done under the direction of most experienced mapmakers. The maps are printed upon a strong bond paper well suited to the use of ink and colors. They also have envelopes of assorted desk maps. One of the most popular and convenient forms of the McKinley series of *Desk Maps* is the Assorted Envelopes, contain-

ing any number of maps, and any assortment of the four sizes of desk maps which they publish. These assortments are now widely used. The instructor determines in advance what maps will be needed in his class-work and the publisher puts up the maps in envelopes according to order. For further information write to the publisher.

WARNS COUNTRY MAY FACE LOST GENERATION OF YOUTH—Mrs. W. A. Hastings, national president of the Congress of Parents and Teachers, warns that unless steps are taken at once to solve the problems in education of youths from fourteen to eighteen the country will face a "lost generation." She has asked teachers to design a plan for training and guidance of those who have left school. Mrs. Hastings said: "In our concern for the returning service men and women and our desire to give them educational opportunities or work opportunities when they return, it is easy to forget another group of young people who have given service on the production front in an unspectacular way and whose education has also been interrupted by the war."

Many of the 3,000,000 in the fourteen to eighteen group who have left school with incomplete education will lose their jobs when the war contracts are ended. When the service men return, thousands more will lose their jobs. A year or two of independence will make it difficult for the youths to return to the old school ways. Many new vocational and other courses must be added to meet the new conditions. More guidance, enforcement of child labor laws, and increased community planning are a necessity.

MORE WASTE PAPER MUST BE SALVAGED—Military requirements are enormous. They come first, and they will be met. The amount of paper collected and made available for re-use will condition the amount available for civilian purposes—newspapers, magazines, and school books. That is why the War Production Board, acting in co-operation with the U. S. Office of Education, the National Education Association, the American Newspaper Publishers' Association, and the Conservation Committee of the Waste Paper Consuming Industries has developed the Paper Trooper Campaign materials and now makes these available to help stimulate the salvage of waste paper by schools.

To work with school administrators and community leaders on school waste-paper salvage, the advisory committee on school salvage programs has been set up by Dr. John Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education. Materials have been prepared for free distribution in quantity lot for school use. These include paper-trooper emblems, paper-trooper chevrons, school certificates of merit, paper-trooper certificates of merit, and householder's pledge cards. Local Salvage Committees will be kept informed of all promotion materials available. Make all requests to these local offices or WPB State Salvage Executive Secretaries located in all state capitals.

The shortage of wood pulp and available waste paper at the paper mills is becoming increasingly critical. The demands of the mills for paperboard containers and paper products for shipment of supplies to all battlefronts is growing constantly. This paper shortage, not only threatens a regular continuance of these shipments, but seriously affects practically all civilian uses of paper, including the essential work of schools and other cultural institutions. The amount of newsprint allocated to publishers is at present only seventy-five per cent of their normal consumption. The situation will become worse unless the salvage of waste paper from the present rate of 542,000 tons a month to approximately 667,000 tons can be increased. To reach this high figure we must look to the schools of the nation for even greater help than they have given in the past, splendid as their past salvage achievements have been. Every school must take an active part to insure the collection and movement of every pound of waste paper available.

TEACHER RECRUITMENT—The Joint Committee on Teacher Education and Recruitment, sponsored by the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, the Department of Classroom Teachers, and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals recently issued a report of action dealing with the evaluation of recruitment materials. This com-

mittee has a number of projects under way. These include one dealing with the evaluation of recruitment material, one with certain aspects of teacher morale, and another with informing the public about what research has been carried on in this field.

SCHOOLS AID VICTORY—School War Savings during 1943-44 by actual count passed the \$600 million mark. This is a magnificent achievement—one school people would like to hear about and of which they can justly feel proud. "A half billion dollars and more is a lot of money for the school children to have saved for Stamps and Bonds," was the comment of President Roosevelt when he received the official 1943-44 Schools-at-War report inscribed on a Jap propeller tip shot down in the Pacific. The presentation was made in the White House library by a 13-year-old Virginia school boy who had helped to organize his school's monthly War Bond rallies, had raised the Schools-at-War flag each morning, and had himself earned enough money for three War Bonds since Christmas.

Previously, elaborate ceremonies had been held at Stout Field, Indianapolis, when the school-financed war equipment was accepted for the Armed Services. In a literal sense the Stout Field presentation became a Report to the Nation, for it was featured in a Newsreel released in every theater during the last two weeks of the Fifth War Loan. The movies also included several shots made in the Indianapolis schools where students were shown buying and selling War Stamps in the class-room, pasting up their Stamp albums, and working to earn money for more War Bonds. This saving of American school youth added up to more than \$600,000,000 worth of trouble for the Axis—last school year. Continual effort is needed during the present school year. Educational material can be secured free from the Education Section, War Finance Division, Washington 25, D. C.

CATALOG OF 16MM SOUND AND SILENT FILMS—The 1944-45 Victory Catalog of 16mm sound and silent motion picture films published by the Institutional Cinema Service, Inc., 1560 Broadway, New York 19, offers a diversified array of amusing, entertaining, and instructive subjects, gathered together by an experienced organization devoted to the ideals of visual education. Sound films are arranged in groups according to prices per film: one group for \$6.75 per program, one for \$8.55, and a third group which lists major releases, special independent pictures, classic features, and literary adaptations—the latest and the most important releases available to the 16mm field. Ten per cent discount applies on a series of ten or more programs. Section two of the catalog lists silent films from which a series of ten or more programs may be selected at \$3.15 per program.

NEED FOR PHARMACISTS—The war has caused a shortage of pharmacists in every American community, according to a recent survey, and unless more young people are attracted to the profession of pharmacy in the next few years, the services of the neighborhood drugstore will be impaired and, what is more important, public health will suffer. Hospitals, too, are feeling the pinch along with drug and pharmaceutical manufacture and research. Careful surveys indicate that the shortage of practicing pharmacists can be conservatively estimated at 6,500 by January, 1946, and this estimate is made assuming the return to pharmacy of 10,000 of the 14,000 pharmacists now in the Armed Services. The most startling factor of all is the downward trend of replacements. Pharmacy student enrollments in colleges have dropped from a normal of 8,800 to 7,000 in the fall of 1942; to 4,300 in the spring of 1943; to 3,600 in the fall of 1943; to 2,700 in the spring of 1944. Only 800 will be graduated in 1944, while between 200 and 300 can be expected to be graduated in 1945, and in succeeding years until the war's end.

The practicing pharmacist—consultant-partner of the local doctor—has, as a professional man, always occupied a place of special trust in the American community because he is a trained man, and because his profession brings him into personal and often intimate contact with every man, woman, and child in his community. The profession of pharmacy never has been, is not now, and never will be static. Year by year, progress in medical science, sanitation, and chemistry steadily broadens the services performed by the profession

of pharmacy, and increases the opportunities offered the student. What are these opportunities? The profession of pharmacy requires high-school education. It offers the serious and ambitious student many exceptional opportunities in the postwar era. The labor market will be glutted with ex-service men competing for jobs but pharmacy will be free of any overcrowding. The National Pharmacy Committee, 620 Fifth Avenue, New York 20, will supply teachers or educational organizations with information on this subject, and has published an interesting booklet, sent free upon request, *Your Future in Pharmacy*.

NEW LEAFLET ON HOW TO SAVE TEETH—The National Dental Hygiene Association has recently produced a small leaflet entitled *How to Save Teeth and Money*, intended primarily for parents. It contains most of the factual information needed by them in advising their children. Wide distribution of this leaflet will effectively aid programs on dental health education. The postpaid price for the leaflet is as follows: 2 for 5c, 12 for 25c, 30 for 50c, 80 for \$1.00, and 1,000 for \$10.00.

INSTITUTIONAL VISUAL MATERIALS—The Friendship Press of 156 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, has recently announced the publication of two new maps: *Indians of the U. S. A.* and the *Wall Map of Southeast Asia* by Louise E. Jefferson. These maps in color, size approximately $34\frac{1}{2}$ by $22\frac{1}{2}$ inches, retail for 25c each. They are excellent pieces of visual material on the subject of the American Indian and Southeast Asia. They should form a valuable supplement to classroom instruction for the study of the American Indians and the battles in the Pacific Ocean.

AWARDS FOR RESEARCH—The Pi Lambda Theta announces two awards of \$400 each, to be granted on or before August 15, 1945, for significant research studies in education. An unpublished study on any aspect of the professional problems of women may be submitted. No study granted an award will become the property of Pi Lambda Theta, nor will Pi Lambda Theta in any way restrict the subsequent publication of a study for which an award is granted, except that it reserves the privilege of inserting an introductory statement in the printed form of any study for which an award is made. A study may be submitted by any individual. Three copies of the final report of the completed research study must be submitted to the Committee on Studies and Awards by July 1, 1945. Information concerning the awards and the form in which the final report must be prepared will be furnished to those writing the chairman of the Committee on Studies and Awards, Miss May Seagoe, University of California, Los Angeles, California.

ARMY BROADCASTS "AMERICAN SCHOOL OF THE AIR" OVERSEAS—The War Department's Morale Service Division, ASF (Army Service Forces), through the co-operation of the Columbia Broadcasting System, is broadcasting the science and geography programs of CBS' *The American School of the Air* to millions of service men and women stationed all over the world. This began October 9. The programs are recorded at the time of the original broadcasts. There are five programs a week covering the fields of science, music, geography and current events. They are flown to approximately four hundred AFRS (Armed Forces Radio Service) broadcasting stations and sound systems which are operated for the education, information, and entertainment of the Armed Forces. Programs are heard on battle fronts, and also on troop transports, hospital ships, submarines, and in General Hospitals in the United States.

RETURNED-SOLDIER PRIZE CONTEST—Random House has announced a prize contest for present and discharged members of the Armed Forces of \$2,500 for the best book on the general subject of the return and readjustment to civilian life. The award will be made by a board of three judges. The prize will be over and above the normal royalties which will be paid under the provisions of the usual publisher's contract. The contest is open to active or discharged members of the Armed Forces of the United States and Allied and liberated nations who have served anywhere in any capacity. Both fiction and non-fiction will be

considered. The publishers feel that the problems of the return to civilian life and the adjustments to be made by the vast number of men and women serving in the military and naval units will dominate the life of the civilized world for years to come and that many epoch-making books will come out of it. Obviously, such books could deal with any or all of the following problems: economics, politics, and social, domestic, moral, psychological and spiritual readjustment. The closing date for the contest is May 31, 1945, and the publishers reserve the right to consider for publication under normal terms any book submitted which is not awarded a prize by the judges. For complete details in regard to the prize contest, those interested should write to the Prize Contest Editor, Random House Inc., 20 East 57th Street, New York 22.

NEW ERPI CLASSROOM FILM—The Encyclopædia Britannica Films, Inc. announces the release of a number of new Erpi classroom films. These films are for use in the upper elementary grades through senior high school. They can be effectively used as supplementary material in practically all school courses. Two recent films are entitled *The West Indies* and *Home Electrical Appliances*. For complete information write to Encyclopædia Britannica Films Inc., 1841 Broadway, New York 23.

HOUSING INFORMATION—*Tomorrow's Town*, a four-page paper, published monthly for NCH members, National Committee on Housing, Inc., 512 Fifth Avenue, New York 18, reports and evaluates current movements in housing and community development, submitting in symposium form views on new methods and new approaches in planning construction, finance, taxation, and other housing and community planning subjects. It will be found helpful to groups engaged in a study of a housing unit of instruction.

A NEW AMERICAN NEWSFRONT—This new magazine, *Tricolor*, 1 East 57th Street, New York 22, is a medium in which the uprooted genius of the world can continue to write with complete intellectual freedom. Readers say: "It is a global New Yorker with a Free French accent;" "an Atlantic Monthly with a touch of chic;" a Harper's Bazaar with a political education and hair on its chest." *Tricolor* good-naturedly ignores the conventions of publishing. It follows its fancy, prints what it pleases; scorns limitations of content; experiments with format; and prodigally strews each issue with original illustrations which more prudent publications might hoard for a whole year of publishing. *Tricolor's* range of contents is as wide as life itself. It is published monthly. The subscription rate is \$5 per year.

A PRE-INDUCTION CONFERENCE—A Pre-Induction Conference was held recently in Kansas City. In attendance at the conference were three hundred boys from the city's junior college and public high schools, about seventy-five boys from the parochial high schools, and twenty-five boys from the high school at Independence. All of these boys had reached, or soon would reach, the age of induction. The conference was held for the purpose of further familiarizing the boys with draft regulations, induction, reception procedures, and with other pertinent items concerning military life. Reports indicate that the conference was highly successful in better preparing the boys for that which was just ahead of them. A month prior to the time for the conference, the vice-principals and counselors from all of the secondary schools in Kansas City, the Acting Director of Counseling, the Director of Research and Curriculum, and the Director of Secondary Education visited Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, where they were taken on a tour through the Induction Station and Reception Center. This tour acquainted the participants with a number of the items which appeared on the Pre-Induction Conference program, and gave them first-hand acquaintance with information which was valuable to them in counseling with high-school youth concerning entrance into the Military Forces. The tour was made in advance of the conference also in order that the participants might be in better position to counsel with boys following the conference. If future events make it advisable it is planned that a similar conference will be held later.

POSTWAR JOBS—Postwar employment prospects in sixteen occupations are described in sixteen different six-page *Occupational Abstracts* just revised and published by Occupational Index, Inc., New York University, New York 3, at 25¢ each. The occupations covered are: building contractor, rural teacher, detective, cabinetmaker, radio service, window display, butcher, free-lance writer, plasterer, air-conditioning engineer, patternmaker, landscape architect, bus and truck driver, linotype operator, accountant, and architect. Each abstract summarizes available information on the nature of the work, abilities and training required, earnings, number and distribution of workers, advantages, disadvantages, and postwar prospects. Sources of further information and best references for additional reading are included.

READING PROBLEMS—The Reading Clinic Staff of the School of Education, the Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa., is sponsoring two important meetings on reading problems during 1945. The Annual Seminar on Reading Disabilities will be held from January 29 to February 2, 1945. Demonstrations and discussions on a differentiated program for analyzing and typing, or classifying reading disabilities will be conducted by the Staff of the Reading Analysis Unit of the Reading Clinic. Remedial techniques will be demonstrated and discussed by the staff of the Reading Clinic Laboratory School. A number of visiting speakers and demonstrators have been included. The program has been planned to interest remedial teachers, school psychologists, speech teachers, neurologists, otologists, and vision specialists.

From June 26 to June 29, 1945, the Reading Clinic Staff will conduct the Annual Conference on Reading Instruction. This Conference deals with classroom problems. The activities are differentiated for elementary and secondary teachers, special class teachers, speech teachers, and school psychologists. Copies of the program and information on transportation schedules may be obtained from Miss Betty J. Haugh, Reading Clinic Secretary, State College, Pennsylvania. Those desiring college credit, especially graduate school credit, for the seminar should register in advance with the Director of the Reading Clinic.

AVIATION EDUCATION—Many high schools throughout the nation are introducing courses in aviation education. Likewise thousands of boys and girls are interested in the story of aviation and in following its development. *Contact*, a monthly magazine published by The Aviation Press, Inc., 113 West 42nd Street, New York 18, has been in the field for ten years. It is a 64-page magazine carrying world-wide news service. A subscription is \$2.00 a year. It covers, in a comprehensive manner, the air news of the month. While articles are authentic and are well written on the adult level, they are equally of interest to the student in the upper year of the high school. Many high-school librarians have found it of real interest to their student readers.

VISITING TEACHERS HOLD PREPARATORY INSTITUTE—The new Michigan Visiting Teacher program recently sponsored a three-day institute at St. Mary's Lake. The total enrollment of more than one hundred included about seventy of the visiting teachers in Michigan schools and about twenty administrators and supervisors. Michigan educators acted as consultants through discussions and conferences on the various subjects and training problems of Visiting Teachers requiring attention. Consideration was given to such basic Visiting Teacher activities as finding pupils in need of adjustment, diagnosing difficulties, planning adjustment programs, providing information to the public, keeping records and making reports, and other related work of the Visiting Teacher. The Visiting Teacher program was initiated as a part of the Governor's Youth Guidance Program. It will provide an important means of helping Michigan pupils make better use of the opportunities that the schools offer.

TRANS-ORBAL MAP—Following the recent publication of an *Atlas of Global Geography*, which is being distributed through Harper and Brothers, the Global Press, Inc., 381 Fourth Avenue, New York 16, have just brought out a new global map, the *Trans-Orbal Map*, size 26 by 40 inches. It is beautifully done in color on durable heavy paper for use as a wall map. This new projection permits the student to look through the globe and to observe

the relationship of all the continents to one another and to the world as a whole. In addition there are three photographs of the transparent globe, which is reproduced for the first time. Taken from different angles, these pictures show clearly the "other side" in addition to the side that is foremost. The retail price of this map, which is being distributed directly through the Global Press, is \$1.00 per copy.

70,000 DISCHARGED VETS ENTER INDUSTRY MONTHLY—Discharged veterans of the present war are entering industry at the rate of approximately 70,000 per month, with a majority going into war production jobs. This is the highlight of the report issued by the Office of War Information. Intended to show what is being done to place discharged veterans in civilian jobs, the report also points out the following facts: More than 74,000 veterans of the present war were placed in civilian jobs in February and March, 1944, by USES. Veterans are seeking jobs different from those held before entering the Services. Only twenty-five per cent of the veterans of the present war discharged through hospitals from May 1, 1940, to the present have been returned to jobs they held before entering the Services. More discharged veterans of the present war have taken war production jobs than are hospitalized in veterans' facilities or have returned to their old jobs. As of March 31, 1944, the Veterans Administration carried 118,839 veterans of the present world war on its disability pension rolls.

KODACHROME SLIDE ON OTHER AMERICAS—The American Council on Education, in co-operation with the Office of the Co-ordinator of Inter-American Affairs, is preparing a series of units or sets of Kodachrome slides representing various aspects of the life and culture of the other American Republics. The Council is at present gathering data concerning possible sources for such visual material and is asking co-operation of schools in supplying the following information: (1) Do you own 2x2 Kodachrome slides in the field of Latin American Studies? How many? (2) What countries are included? (3) What particular subjects? (4) From what sources has your or your school's collection been assembled? (5) If originals are owned by you, would you make them available to this office? (6) Would it be possible to supply us with a general listing of slides included in your collection? (7) Do you know of any other collections which would be of value or special interest to this project? (8) What Kodachrome materials would you like to see developed which would meet your particular needs? Any school that has Kodachrome slides or suggestions pertinent to this project, is urged to advise Miss Florence Arquin, Director of the Kodachrome Slide Project, American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C. While the Council cannot assume responsibility beyond the actual cost for slides sent for its inspection, every precaution will be taken to insure their safety and prompt return.

POSTWAR INFORMATION EXCHANGE—The formal establishment of the Postwar Information Exchange, Inc. and the decision to make its clearing-house facilities available to the public through the medium of the *Postwar Information Bulletin* to be published monthly were announced by Twentieth Century Fund. The Postwar Information Exchange, Inc., is made up of staff members of more than forty research and educational agencies dealing with national and international postwar problems. It developed in response to a growing need among the co-operating organizations for a means of avoiding duplication and of increasing the effectiveness of public educational programs. Informal monthly meetings have been held in New York and Washington for more than a year.

The *Postwar Information Bulletin* will make available to individuals in local communities the pooled information of the membership of the Postwar Information Exchange, Inc. It will be planned especially to help discussion leaders, program chairmen, teachers, librarians, and others to stimulate mass interest in postwar problems. By selecting and describing the materials which are most valuable for group study and making suggestions for their use, the *Bulletin* will offer a co-ordinating service not available elsewhere. *Postwar Information Bulletin* is a four-page printed, monthly paper with subscription at \$1.00 per year for the

twelve issues. Subscriptions and further correspondence should be addressed to The Postwar Information Exchange, Inc., 8 West 40th Street, New York 18.

THE INTER-AMERICAN—This magazine published by The Inter-American, 415 Lexington Avenue, New York 17, is an unusual publication that is rapidly being placed in many high-school libraries and in those now offering a course in the history of the other Americas. Each issue is as vivid and accurate a picture as the best experts can make it—of what Latin Americans are thinking and doing.

These are not the Latin Americans of the rotogravure sections or Hollywood. They are the citizens of our twenty neighbor republics as they *really* are. One learns their policies, their economic way of life, their art, music, and literature. Each month one becomes better acquainted with the colorful world south of the Rio Grande. The pageant of Latin America has never been more fascinating than right now, when it is coming of age, breaking its Old World ties, facing a new destiny with us. A turning point is being reached in our relations with Latin American countries and peoples. Will we work with them in mutual understanding and prosperity, or will the old antagonisms revive? All of us who look forward to lasting peace and profitable trade realize the necessity for the former. But the answer lies with us. We can insure it only if we become well acquainted with the peoples south of the Rio Grande, come to know their problems and aspirations, their psychological approach to life, to business, and to international relations.

The Inter-American paints no roseate, imaginative picture of the southern republics but brings a lively, informal, and reliable portrait of what's going on in Latin America—a portrait of people, events, and trends. Splendidly illustrated with timely photographs, written in English by a staff of expert correspondents in key cities on both continents, *The Inter-American* brings each month up-to-the-minute news of what Latin America is thinking and doing on four vital "fronts". Richly illustrated articles give an insight into Latin America's growing cultural life; disclose achievements and personalities in her art, music, and literature—which so affect and reflect the thinking of the people. The regular subscription rate is \$3.00 a year.

CONFERENCE ON POSTWAR CURRICULUM—Teachers and administrators from forty-six of the high schools of Michigan state participated in a week-long conference on secondary school problems. The conference, held at the Higgins Lake Conservation Training School was sponsored by the Michigan Secondary-School Curriculum Study and the Michigan Secondary-School Association. Postwar curriculum changes, the core curriculum, democratic experiences in the classroom, teacher morale and professional problems, the unified studies curriculum, and school-community relationships were discussed in detail by groups organized for the continued consideration of these problems. Other groups studied and discussed intercultural education, guidance and youth problems, the needs of returning service men and women, and health education. The Governor's Youth Guidance Field Committee, also in session at the Lake, presented a panel discussion on recreation and delinquency at one of the evening sessions. Dr. Cecil Parker, director of the Education Division, OPA, spoke twice on postwar economic development. Conservation projects received extended consideration both at a talk, illustrated by slides, and on a number of field trips that were conducted during the conference.

RADIO PROGRAM ON AFTER VICTORY—The Commission to Study the Organization of Peace is now co-operating in the *Beyond Victory* radio programs sponsored by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace and the World-Wide Broadcasting Foundation. This series of electrical transcriptions, dealing with postwar problems, is made available to independent radio stations. Over seventy radio stations throughout the country are carrying the programs. Schools can secure detailed information about this series by writing to the World-Wide Broadcasting Foundation, 598 Madison Avenue, New York 22.

DISCUSSION GROUP MATERIALS—The Association for Education in Citizenship of 51, Tothill Street, London S.W.1. under the Honorary Secretary Mrs. Eva M. Hubback, M.A., has a series of thirteen discussion pamphlets upon the following subjects: *How to Lead Discussion Groups*, *The Democratic Idea*, *Is Britain a Democracy?* *Our Towns*, *Economic Reconstruction after the War*, *Health*, *The Schools, Today and Tomorrow*, *Problems of Population*, *Private Enterprise and Public Control*, *Democracy and Local Government*, *Women in the Post-War World*, and *Social Security*. Others in print include: *The Cinema* and *Planning Your Country*. The price of these publications is fourpence each.

SALARIES PAID PRINCIPALS—The average salary paid principals in the state of North Carolina has increased since 1933-34, when the average annual salary of all principals was only \$1,150.90. Last year, the actual figures for which are not yet available, it is estimated that the average annual salary paid all principals from all sources, both state and local, was approximately \$2,035. This is an average increase of about \$88 per year. The greatest increase has been during recent years. This noticeable increase was due, in the main, to three causes: (1) slight increase in the state's standard salary schedule including the addition of a fifth increment; (2) an increase in the school term of nine months, the result of which an additional month's salary was added, and (3) the provision for the war bonus. In addition, in a number of instances the salary of the principal is increased by a supplement from local funds. The average monthly salary of all principals employed in 1933-34 on an eight-months basis was approximately \$144. Last year, from all funds, the average paid principals on a monthly basis of nine months was approximately \$225. Figuring these average monthly salaries on a 12-month basis, however, they were \$96 in 1933-34 and \$170 in 1943-44. Considering state funds only, these figures would be slightly lower.

Salaries paid white principals, for two main reasons, have been larger than those paid Negro principals. First, the salary schedule in the past has been higher. In the second place, the size of white schools as a rule are larger than Negro schools. The salary schedule provides that the principal's salary increases as the number of teachers permitted in accordance with the number of pupils in average daily attendance. Beginning with the current year, under the recent ruling of the State Board of Education, the salaries of white and Negro principals will be the same; but this does not mean that the average salaries of white and Negro principals will be identical, since the size of the school will be a determining factor.

NEW PAMPHLET ON SUPERVISED STUDENT FARMING PROGRAMS—Learn to farm by farming—with teacher advice—is the suggestion given in a newly published U. S. Office of Education pamphlet, *Development of Comprehensive Supervised Farming Programs on the Part of Day-school Students of Vocational Agriculture is very Important*. The pamphlet outlines complete and concrete procedures for setting up such farming programs. Emphasizing the need for supervised agricultural programs leading to establishment in farming, the pamphlet says, "The supervised farming program is an integral part of vocational agriculture, not an appendage. The failure on the part of many individuals of vocational agriculture to realize the importance and value of using the supervised farming programs of the students as a basis for course construction and teaching has always been a fundamental difficulty. Such experience aids the individual student in developing abilities, acquiring skills, and solving farming problems on his own level, and should lead to a definite goal—satisfactory establishment in a farming occupation." Continuing, the pamphlet gives detailed suggestions for development of such a program, the role of the student, and the type of instruction. The pamphlet can be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., for 15 cents.

The Book Column

BOOKS FOR TEACHER USE

BERRY, J. R. *Current Conceptions of Democracy*. New York: Columbia Univ. Press. 1944.

110 pp. \$1.85. This study makes a contribution to the literature on the meaning of democracy. It reveals the major points of agreement and disagreement in the interpretations of ordinary people who use the word. Individuals from various occupational and associational groups were given an opportunity to express agreement or disagreement with a comprehensive list of statements representing divergent views about democracy. A large body of democratic theory on which there is almost universal agreement was disclosed. Sharp disagreements in certain areas, which in some instances followed definite group lines, were also revealed. The areas of agreement provide a charter for implementation; the area of disagreement offer a challenge to discussion and resolution.

BRUBACHER, J. S. (Editor) *The Public Schools and Spiritual Values*. New York: Harper

and Brothers. 1944. 222 pp. \$2.50. This book has been prepared as the Seventh John Dewey Society Yearbook because of a recognition that this is a critical moment in which the nation's spiritual values stand in dire need of support from the public school. Doubt seems to have arisen in the minds of many whether the school is fulfilling—or even can fulfill—this social function. This recognition has led to an examination in this volume of the part which the "spiritual values" should play in public education, despite the fact that by long tradition religion as such is barred from our public school curriculum. The aim has been to set forth the widest possible basis of agreement as between the "secularist" and the "supernaturalist" position. However, in two chapters explicit acknowledgment is given to a statement of the differences found to exist between these two positions.

BURTON, W. H. *The Guidance of Learning Activities*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co.

1944. 601 pp. \$3.75. The general principles of teaching offered for the guidance of teachers are summarized ordinarily in either one of two broad general schemes: the traditional assign-study-recite-test procedure, or the more recently developed unitary organization. Texts in this field usually present one or the other, with adequate cross-reference between the two practically non-existent. The present volume develops for each of the two procedures a most adequate treatment. The plan and organization of this volume illustrate the principles presented within it. The student's experience, present knowledge, and interests constitute the starting-point. Examination of one's own naive and incomplete knowledge raises questions. The organized knowledge in the field, including scientific research and democratic philosophy, are introduced in answer to problems raised. A few critics insist that students be introduced directly to, and trained by means of, the systematic organized body of material in the field. The writer believes this to be futile with young, immature, inexperienced students. The scientific and philosophic background, sadly lacking in so many practical teachers, must certainly be introduced but is best introduced when needed. An orderly and systematic view of the field must be eventually the possession of any teacher who wishes to be competent. The mature, systematic organization will be achieved and understood better if developed by the student than if imposed upon him. Older students possessing adequate background of experience and study may proceed more directly to study of the systematized information. The style of writing is directed to students, not to mature scholars.

CHAMBERLAIN, E. B. *Our Independent Schools, The Private School in American Education*.

New York: American Book Co. 1944. 212 pp. This book, as its subtitle explains, is the report of a study of private schools and their place in American education. The

term "independent school" is used frequently throughout, since that designation is the one by which the schools themselves prefer to be known and it is also the term which more accurately describes their nature and function. The author has tried faithfully to record and fairly to interpret, the picture of American private schools. The book presents a composite photograph. This might be called a "case book" for the independent school, and, so far as we know, it is the first such presentation. It is neither a defense nor an apology. It is a descriptive statement of the work private schools have done and are doing. It attempts to arrive at a clear definition of their special characteristics and functions. Certainly the many experiences and convictions compressed between the covers may do something to increase the wider understanding of our independent schools and their service.

CUNLIFFE, R. B. (Chairman) *Guidance Practice in New Jersey*. New Brunswick: Rutgers College. 1942. 147 pp. Guidance has moved far since the tentative pioneer efforts of thirty years ago, and much of significance has happened within the last decade. It has become and is generally recognized as an essential part of the nation's educational program. A review of what has been accomplished and a study of current trends are of value to those interested in education and in youth. In some detail, this study reports the practices which the guidance workers believe they do best; it gives descriptions, based on first-hand investigation, of the guidance programs of twelve representative schools; and it presents approved and verified accounts of how public agencies other than the schools are contributing to the guidance of youth. This study is recommended to those who are interested in the guidance of youth.

DANIEL J. McT. *Excellent Teachers, Their Qualities and Qualifications*. Columbia, S. C.: The Steering Committee, 106 Education Building. Univ. of South Carolina. 1944. 308 pp. This book deals with replies of superintendents, principals, supervisors, teachers, patrons, and pupils in response to the request (a) that they name the most excellent public school teacher within their experiences of the last fifteen years and (b) that each list the reasons why he considers the named teacher the most excellent. Moreover, included is a follow-up study of the teachers named with certain recommendations for the selection of teachers, which appear logically to follow the reasons.

Educational Policies Commission. *Education for All American Youth*. Washington 6, D. C.: The Commission of the National Education Association. 1944. 421 pp. \$1.00. The Commission outlines two possibilities. The bulk of the volume, however, is devoted to a concrete and fairly detailed description of three sample programs,—one for a rural community, one for a city, and one for a state program for the education of youth. The Commission feels that there is rather solid agreement within the teaching profession and among informed members of the public regarding the general principles which ought to control in the extension of secondary education in this country. The programs of education described in this volume are not intended to be blue-prints for local school systems. On the contrary, they are merely samples of the many different possible solutions to the problem of meeting the needs of all American youth for educational service and are offered in the hope that they will stimulate and aid the planning and action which are already underway in many states and communities and which soon must be undertaken in all.

The greatest need for assistance and co-operation centers in concrete and specific suggestions for the actual operation of schools. *Education for All American Youth* tries to supply such definite proposals. Local educational leadership should see to it that this document is made the subject of newspaper editorials; that it is called to the attention of local, state, and national officials responsible for educational policy; and that it is intensively studied by every school administrator and secondary-school teacher in the United States. The implications of this document for teacher education, for school

and community, including business and labor, make it an important volume to get into the hands of school-board members and other influential lay leaders. Active support should be given in encouraging the distribution of this document among teachers in the secondary school, school administrators, boards of education, members of parent-teacher associations, civic leaders, professors of secondary education and school administrators, and public officials.

EYSTER, E. S. (Chairman) *Community Co-operation in Business Education*. New York 3: New York Univ. Bookstore, 239 Greene Street. 1944. 326 pp. \$2.50. This Yearbook, prepared by The National Business Teachers Association and The Eastern Commercial Teachers Association, is divided into four parts. Part One covers the topic "What Business Education is Most Valuable for American Youth." It consists of statements by various organizations of business men as to what are their philosophies of education for business. Part Two analyzes the statements of Part One in the effort to evaluate them in the following categories: the needs of business; the desires of society for youth education; the extent to which business education has already fulfilled these requests; how business education can do a better job; and what facilities will need to be provided.

Part Three deals with ways and means of establishing full co-operation between the teachers of business subjects and the business communities which they serve. Practical suggestions and methods are presented. Part Four is an exposition of co-operative planning by the schools and business. In addition to a statement of the fundamental principles involved, there are discussions of local surveys as a basis of planning, techniques to be used in co-operative planning, and a statement of postwar problems in business education which must be considered in any program of postwar planning. Throughout the volume, a mutual point of view is expressed—that business education is of value to the community and must help the community in order to justify its existence and that the community is of value to business education and should contribute its share in the process of helping to make American youth better citizens, more discerning consumers, and more productive workers.

FORRESTER, GERTRUDE. *Methods of Vocational Guidance*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1944. 460 pp. \$3.00. This book contains a wealth of practical suggestions which teachers can put directly to use with high-school pupils. It fills the need for a book describing methods of vocational guidance for teachers and counselors and serves as a classroom text for teachers in training. It is useful not only for teachers of business, but for teachers in all subject fields. It provides a rich program of activities to stimulate the student's interest in planning his career. It also describes detailed methods of helping students understand and take their places in the vocational world.

GOODRICH, L. M., and CARROLL, M. J. (Editors) *Documents on American Foreign Relations, July, 1942 - June, 1943*. 1944. 735 pp. \$3.75. The unquestioned advantage of having the significant developments in American foreign policy during the year July 1, 1942, to June 30, 1943, presented within the covers of one volume has been greatly enhanced by careful organization of the documents selected. This serves to point up the interrelation of the measures taken for winning the war with the responsibilities of the United States as a member of the United Nations in co-operative effort for winning the peace. Special attention has been given to the evolution of methods of consultation and organized co-operation which will play such an important part in shaping the future success of the United and Associated Nations, and in the creation of a general international organization for maintenance of peace and security from aggression.

GRAVES, A. D. *A Guide to the Social Studies Program in the Junior High Schools*. San Francisco: San Francisco Public School System. 1944. 165 pp. This volume represents the third step in the revision of San Francisco's secondary-school curriculum. The first was an intensive study of *Curriculum Foundations for the San Francisco Secondary*

Schools, planned and published in 1943. The second was a program on *The Teaching of Reading in the San Francisco Junior and Senior High Schools*, developed in the early part of 1944. At the same time there has been consistent progress in guidance that crystallized in the publication of *A Guide to Counseling* which parallels these curriculum studies. All have been worked out by classroom teachers and administrative staff members working in committees appointed to analyze programs and develop new procedures that are consistent with improvement in education and changes in community needs. Consultants have been brought in from time to time to advise and criticize their progress. Subject matter and teaching methods used are the result of trial under actual classroom conditions. Teaching materials have been selected by the same process.

The social studies program is particularly important at this time because of the attention to a broader perspective in world relationships, the development of new methods of communications, and the impact of the airplane on transportation, as well as the consideration necessary for war and postwar problems. The junior high-school age is a period when boys and girls begin to participate on a democratic basis in the broader aspects of community life. It is extremely important, therefore, that the proper kind of a program be worked out. Learning situations must be set up in which the maximum development toward social competence will be possible. The outline here suggested is the basis for that development. It is the result of careful investigation, democratically produced and tried out in the classroom.

HARMON, F. S. *The Command is Forward*. New York 16: Richard E. Smith, 120 E. 39th Street. 1944. 56 pp. Selections from addresses on the motion picture industry in war and peace by the executive vice-chairman of the war activities committee of the Motion Picture Industry. The entire industry, organized in seven national divisions and thirty-one area committees, works through a national co-ordinator whose task it is to arrange necessary clearances with governmental war agencies, to keep various branches of the industry working together harmoniously, and to furnish information and inspiration at industry rallies and public gatherings.

HUNT, E. M. (Editor) *Citizens of a New World*. Washington, D. C.: The National Council for the Social Studies. 1944. 186 pp. \$2.00. This book is an important publication in the field of postwar problems and international relations. Contributors to the various chapters are outstanding authorities in their respective fields. This volume deals with the impact of recent wars on society and civilization, reviews and development of international co-operation, and considers proposals for establishing the security of the nations and peoples of the world, including our own. It gives attention not only to political machinery but to the economic and social foundations upon which any enduring international organization and any enduring peace must rest. It describes the responsibility of rehabilitation and health agencies, and of labor policies, for establishing a minimum level of human welfare, and the role of education both in dealing with the problems of the Axis peoples and in building support for world order.

IVEY, JR., J. E. *Channeling Research into Education*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1944. 192 pp. \$1.25. This volume is a product of group effort. Throughout the seven-months study which preceded the actual writing, representatives of state, regional, and Federal educational and research agencies freely gave their time to answering inquiries, both by letter and in conference. It is a symbol of an educational experience which has been shared by a rather significant group of southern educators and research specialists. This group helped define the issues and suggested ways of attacking the problems involved. And now in their own states many members of the group are developing or executing programs aimed to achieve more effective educational use of research on resources and problems of the South. The study points up some of

the major aspects of the problems and opportunities facing the South in devising ways and means to secure continuous educational use of available research on resources and living conditions of the region.

McCONNELL, T. R. (Chairman) *Design for General Education*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1944. 188 pp. \$1.25. Ten basic objectives and twelve specific courses for general education for members of the Armed Forces are contained in this report which a committee has recently completed at the request of the United States Armed Forces Institute. The suggested instructional materials, planned primarily for the period following the end of hostilities, are already being prepared by the Institute for use in correspondence study and group instruction. The courses have been developed for men and women at the upper senior high-school or junior-college level. However, the Committee points out that persons who have served in the Armed Forces will possess a more mature point of view than the usual high-school or junior-college student, and the courses have therefore been prepared for adults.

The report contains outlines of the courses proposed by the Committee. These include Personal and Community Health; Oral and Written Communication; Problems of Social Adjustment; Marriage and Family Adjustment; Development of American Thought and Institutions; Problems of American Life; America in International Affairs; Science—Biological and Physical; Literature—American Life and Ideals in Literature Readings; Form and Function of Art in Society; Music in Relation to Human Experience; Philosophy and Religion—The Meaning and Value of Life; and Vocational Orientation. Extensive bibliographies are provided for each course.

McCONNELL, T. R. (Chairman) *New Directions for Measurement and Guidance*. American Council on Education. 1944. 108 pp. \$1.25. The Committee on Measurement and Guidance held a conference at the Princeton Inn, Princeton, New Jersey, March 19, 20, and 21 for the purpose of discussing new developments in the construction of measuring instruments and new needs for tests and examinations in schools and colleges. The discussion centered around papers presented by persons actively engaged in making tests, organizing and conducting testing programs, or using measuring devices.

NEIL, A. S. *The Problem Teacher*. New York 11: International Univ. Press, 227 West 13th Street. 1944. 160 pp. \$2.00. The author is the exponent of some of the most advanced thinking and doing in progressive education yet to be seen. He has been running his famous Summerhill School in Wales, England, for almost twenty years, with results that should give Americans food for thought. The book is based on sound and advanced child psychology aimed at preparing the young for living and doing. His analysis of society and how and why it molds its citizenry through education to the pattern it desires, makes stimulating and provocative reading.

POTTER, T. M. *An Analysis of the Work of General Clerical Employees*. New York: Columbia Univ. Press. 1944. 100 pp. \$1.85. This study has as its major purpose the desire to make a contribution to a general understanding of the common needs of education and business. General clerical work in both fields has shown over a long period of years more growth than any other occupational division included under the classification of business. During recent months, war conditions have added abnormal demands for the training of these workers. Both education and business have a common interest.

A clarification of the common elements in the work of general clerical employees is basic to the development of training programs for such workers. The specific purposes of this study were, therefore, (1) to determine the characteristics of the work of the typical general clerical employee, and the characteristics of typical business in-service training programs for general clerical work; and (2) upon the basis of facts discovered, to draw conclusions concerning a desirable secondary-school training program for general clerical workers.

- RATHBONE, J. L. *Corrective Physical Education*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co. 1944. 275 pp. \$3.00. This book presents, for students of physical education and physical therapy, the essential facts of human anatomy and physiology as they pertain to the subject of corrective exercise. The material has been gathered from medical literature and from clinic experience, and organized in a way to build on the past experiences of the student, and to lead him to an interest in the subject which will compel him to consider the problem of the underdeveloped or handicapped child as of prime concern.
- SCHMAELZLE, O. I. *A Guide to Counseling*. San Francisco: City School System. 1944. 131 pp. 50c. This guide to counseling follows by two years the reorganization of the Department of Counseling and Guidance. It is the outgrowth of experience and of a need for the materials included instead of being a pre-arranged pattern to which the guidance program was to be fashioned. It is dedicated to the service of all teachers and to the fact that every teacher should be a counselor. It is not a treatise on guidance, nor is it an exposition of the program that San Francisco has developed. Rather it is a tool, one that can be modified, extended, or rewritten as the need warrants.
- SLADEN, F. J. (Editor) *Psychiatry and the War*. Baltimore: Charles C. Thomas. 1943. 505 pp. \$5.00. This book gives a very complete perspective of psychiatry out of the experience and thought of leaders of the profession in the United States and Canada who participated in a Conference on Psychiatry at the invitation of the University of Michigan and McGregor Fund. It is a survey of psychiatry and its closely allied fields. Past experiences and present techniques are examined. Values are weighed and aims and goals are reshaped, under the stress of war and wartime conditions. It is divided into five parts: *The Aim and Scope of Psychiatry, The Future of Research and the Future in Psychiatry, Psychiatry in the Training, Experience and Education of the Individual, Religion and Psychiatry, and a Summary.*
- SMITH, F. T. *An Experiment in Modifying Attitudes Toward the Negro*. New York: Columbia Univ. Press. 1943. 135 pp. \$1.85. The author's application of a carefully planned experimental method in a procedure for developing Negro-white understanding has an immense importance. It demonstrates a measurably huge result from a relatively short period of race contacts under conditions so well controlled as to force the conclusion that these specific experiences are in fact important specific factors in the amelioration of race relations. Secondly, it reveals a large transfer value from one situation to another; amelioration produced in visits to cultural centers in Harlem have a generalized effect upon attitudes toward Negroes. In the face of so much defeatist talk about the weakness of scientific method in a complex cultural setting, an insight and technically masterful answer is given in this ocular demonstration. The author does not conclude that this single approach is "the solution" of our race problems.
- STRANG, RUTH. *Behavior and Background of Students in College and Secondary School*. New York: Harper and Bros. 1937. 515 pp. \$4.00. This book is the second in the author's series of summary analyses of personnel work as now being conducted in American colleges and secondary schools. In this study of efforts to adjust student behavior to school life and work, the following topics are stressed,—measuring intelligence, scholastic achievement, personal attitudes, and use of time. Student behavior is further analyzed in relation to social and economic backgrounds. It analyzes the behavior of students in class and extracurriculum activities from various points of view and shows how social and economic backgrounds influence campus behavior. The major effort is to show the bearing of facts regarding school and home life upon a sound appraisal of the individual student's potentialities by the faculty counselor.
- United States Government Manual, Summer 1944 Washington 25, D. C.; Supt. of Documents. 1944. 712 pp. \$1.00. Contains sections dealing with the organization and func-

tions of every agency of the Federal Government in the legislative, executive, and judicial branches.

WHITE, H. C. and J. H. *Romantic China*. Berrien Springs, Michigan: White Brothers. 1930. 96 pp. with descriptive material about each on the back of each plate. \$1.50 plus postage. An album, unbound, containing 42 photographic studies of China's historic monuments and charming beauty spots, each complete with descriptive and historical notes about each on the opposite plate. To the teacher interested in the Far East, these pictures and notes will furnish excellent source material that will in a sense entice her pupils to learn more of China and gain a keener and more sympathetic understanding of this centuries old nation.

WOELLNER, R. C., and WOOD, M. A. *Requirements for Certification of Teachers and Administrators*. Chicago: The Univ. of Chicago Press. 1944. \$2.00. Mimeo. The shortage of teachers is becoming quite acute in certain parts of the United States. Some states were compelled to issue many emergency certificates during 1943-1944 to persons who did not meet the regular certification requirements. In all likelihood the school year 1944-1945 will witness the issuance of an even greater number of emergency certificates. For this reason the authors have included a general statement concerning the issuance of emergency certificates in this annual revision of the regular certification requirements. So as to be sure that the general statement made about the issuance of emergency certificates by the states is not confused with their regular certification requirements, colored pages are used in this publication for the former. This current revision of *Requirements for Certification of Teachers and Administrators*, as all the preceding ones, deals primarily with the regular certification requirements for elementary- and secondary-school and junior-college teachers.

WRISTON, H. M. *Challenge to Freedom*. New York: Harper and Bros. 1943. 240 pp. \$2.00. The author presents a program which he believes will realize the democratic way of life for which we are fighting. He believes that we have too long been on the defensive in all our thinking about democracy as a way of life. He believes we have forgotten the importance of the individual. He warns of the dangers and failures of planned economy and pleads for an aggressive, not a passive democracy. He raises opposition to some of the tendencies in American governmental and social life.

ZIMAND, G. F. *Behind the Child Labor Headlines*. New York: National Child Labor Committee. 1943. 35 pp. The annual report of the Committee. The first section gives a general picture of the changes the war has brought in child labor while the other section summarizes the points of which immediate action is needed and suggests problems needing consideration in the postwar period.

BOOKS FOR TEACHER AND PUPIL USE

ALTENBURG, C. E. *A Modern Conquistador in South America*. Boston: The Christopher Publishing House. 1944. 167 pp. \$2.50. Here is a penetrating insight into the history and modern character of South America. The work is made up of a series of personal letters written by the author to his wife of true experiences on great ocean liners, in Latin American cities, and in the high mountain and jungle regions of South America, with headhunters, bull-fighters, and with outstanding men of letters.

BEARD, C. A., and M. S. *Basic History of the United States*. New York 20; New Home Library, 14 W. 49th St. 1944. 508 pp. 69c. This new book represents a distillation of more than forty years of the co-operative study, observation, and thought of Charles and Mary Beard. Vividly, and with exceptional clarity, it tells how our great society came into being, how and why it developed, and what physical, social, military, poli-

tical, economic, intellectual, and spiritual events and circumstances produced the American civilization in which we now live and work. Compact in form and directed to the general public, this book was conceived and executed as a project entirely new in purpose and intent. While of obvious value to the student, it is not a textbook. It was written expressly for the multitude of mature readers who wish to secure a knowledge of those fundamental activities, ideas, and interests which are basic to any true understanding of American history.

- BELL, J. W., JOHNSON, W. H., GOODMAN, MARK, and COTNER, EDNA. *The English We Need*. Philadelphia: J. C. Winston Co. 1943. 405 pp. This book for ninth-grade pupils is designed to provide both a course in composition and a procedure in reading the literature of our heritage. It also gives definite and practical, detailed directions to both pupils and teachers regarding the newer activities that are now being stressed in the English curriculum: work with newspapers, magazines, radio, and motion pictures. Four areas are included in the book: current English; communication, oral and written; our literary heritage; and personal and social requirements in the every-day life.
- BOTKIN, B. A. *A Treasury of American Folklore*. New York 16: Crown Publishing Co. 1944. 932 pp. \$3.00. A fresh and unusual anthology full of excellent and interesting reading. It contains more than 500 stories and 100 songs (with words and music)—those favorite songs of lore. A good assortment of American legendary heroes.
- BRANCH, W. J. V., and BROOK-WILLIAMS, E. *A Short History of Navigation*. Annapolis: Weems System of Navigation. 1942. 91 pp. This little treatise was written for two reasons. Firstly, to collect in one volume many scraps of information, the different items of which may be familiar to different navigators, but which, collectively, may not be known by all navigators. Secondly, in an effort to escape from the boredom of the inactivity of the early months, and sometimes from the realities of the later months, of the Second World War.
- BRONSON, R. M. *Indians Are People, Too*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1944. 184 pp. Cloth, \$1.00. Paper, 60c. Here is an interesting story of the original owners of our country written by a Cherokee. It is the story of the part the American Indian is playing in our national life and what the nation can do for the Indian. Excellent for a study of minority people.
- BRUECKNER, L. J., GROSSNICKLE, F. E., and BEDFORD, F. L. *Arithmetic We Use. Grade Nine*. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co. 1944. 437 pp. 88c. This volume, the last in a series for each grade from the second to the ninth, is an extension of instruction in arithmetic through the ninth year and an orientation to algebra and trigonometry. It provides an opportunity for growth in quantitative thinking by the inclusion of units dealing with vitally significant social problems resulting from the universal use of aircraft, and the amazing developments in chemistry as illustrated by the dehydration of food products and the use of synthetics. Also has a teacher answer book and a pupil workbook to accompany it.
- CONGER, E. M. *American Tanks and Tank Destroyers*. New York: Henry Holt and Co. 1944. 160 pp. \$2.00. Like Mrs. Conger's very successful previous book, *American Warplanes*, *American Tanks and Tank Destroyers* will fascinate grown-ups as well as children. It is, in fact, the most up-to-date account of our Armored Forces to be found anywhere, and it contains many stories of some of the famous tank battles of the war. The author has had the advice and help of the Army in gathering and presenting her material and illustrations. Like *American Warplanes*, it is profusely illustrated with photographs.
- COOKE, D. C. *The Model Plane Annual: 1944*. New York 3: Robert M. McBride and Co. 1944. 224 pp. \$2.75. The Model Plan Annual has already established itself as the only

yearly handbook for model builders throughout the country. Non-technical in general scope, it is technically accurate in all details and is packed with material helpful to all model-airplane builders. The completely new 1944 edition contains a full fourteen comprehensive chapters, including "Engine Theory and Construction," "Conquest of the Air," and "Lilliputian Liberators." In addition, there are both flying and non-flying model plans, and a three-view salon containing more than a dozen accurate plans of famous aircraft.

COXEN, H. H., JACKSON, G. E., and MASTERS, G. D. *Aircraft Sheet Metal Blueprint Reading*. Chicago 37: American Technical Society. 1944. \$2.50. Here is the sixth in a series of aviation books. Like the others, it has been written by eminent authorities who were qualified for the task by virtue of years of actual "on-the-job" experience plus special training. This new text, which has been prepared in workbook form, enables a teacher not only to handle a large class efficiently but also to do a thorough job of teaching *Aircraft Sheet Metal Blueprint Reading*. It contains true and false tests and actual blue-on-white and black-on-white prints ranging in size from $8\frac{1}{2}" \times 10\frac{1}{4}"$ to $10\frac{3}{4}" \times 16"$ to $21\frac{1}{4}" \times 31\frac{1}{4}"$. Adjoining each print is a sheet on which are printed a series of questions with spaces for answers; these sheets may be readily removed from the text without harming the book. Extra sets of these questions can be purchased and, therefore, for a few cents, the textbook itself can be used over and over again in many school classes.

CREEL, GEORGE. *War Criminals and Punishment*. New York: McBride and Co. 1944. 303 pp. \$3.00. What shall be done with the war criminals of the Axis powers? This book presents the first full consideration of this vital problem. Here are listed the principal offenders against international law and the laws of humanity.

CROSS, E. A., and N. M. *Types of Literature, An Anthology*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1944. 691 pp. \$2.40. This anthology for use in high-school classes, is organized in seven large units, each presenting a type of literary work. The fields covered are the short story, the essay, poetry, the long, narrative poem, the one-act play, the full-length play, and the novel. Jack London's *The Call of the Wild* is used as the basis of the study of the novel. The course is introduced by a unit on "Growing Up and Learning." There is a total of 128 selections in the book. Each selection is introduced by a brief preview and followed by suggestions for group discussion; and each unit is preceded by a study of the type of literature presented in the unit and followed by analytical study and suggestions for further reading of a related character. The book is beautifully illustrated by pen-and-ink drawings by Maud and Miska Petersham.

CROW, ALICE, and L. D. *Learning to Live with Others*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1944. 284 pp. \$1.48. This text was written to play a double role in the high-school curriculum—as a basic psychology text, and as a guidance manual. Functional throughout, this new text offers a clear presentation of basic psychological principles with applications, in addition to stressing the adjustment aspects of living. A truly practical psychology, *Learning to Live with Others* is interesting and clear, designed for the high-school student, and written on his own level of thinking. Psychological terms used are clearly defined. Plentiful, pertinent examples and concrete explanations in terms of the student's own experience insure understanding; thought-provoking questions, printed in italics and interspersed throughout the text, aid in mastery of important concepts.

DELORIA, ELLA. *Speaking of Indians*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1944. 163 pp. Cloth, \$1.00. Paper, 60c. The story of the American Indian—about his early life, his languages, his culture, his social, economic and religious life, and his present-day problems. The chapter on "The Reservation Picture" is truly an excellent picture.

- DUNCOMBE, FRANCES. *Clarinda*. New York: Henry Holt and Co. 1944. 133 pp. \$2.00. The story of a little girl with a mind of her own who really learns things. Even though written for elementary pupils, girls in the 7th and 8th grades will really enjoy it.
- EATON, JEANETTE. *Lone Journey, The Life of Roger Williams*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1944. 266 pp. \$2.50. Americans are just beginning to realize what Roger Williams did for us, and it is strange that only lately have we begun to take the measure of such a leader. That is partly because of his own modesty and also because his beliefs were so far in advance of his times that few contemporaries recognized his genius. But today the principles Roger Williams fought for are in the minds of all Americans. Young and old are groping to find the clean, daylit spaces where the seeds of liberty were planted. American history offers no more thrilling chapter than the lone journey of Roger Williams described in this stirring and timely biography. He set forth on a dangerous path into the unknown, a path leading to freedom for mankind.
- FISHBEIN, MORRIS, and IRWIN, L. W. *Health and First Aid*. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan. 1944. 372 pp. Basic health and hygiene practices selected on the basis of every-day needs. It emphasizes protective measures and procedures applicable today. First aid and accident prevention is given simply and concisely, using techniques, practices, and methods accepted by the medical profession—including the newest techniques developed by experiences in World War II. It contains summaries, objective tests for review, and practical problems of actual situations in which first-aid knowledge must be applied.
- FREILICH, AARON, SHANHOLT, H. H., and SEIDLIN, JOSEPH. *Spherical Trigonometry*. New York: Silver Burdett Co. 1943. 140 pp. \$1.28. Since the attack on Pearl Harbor, our high schools and colleges have been urged to include spherical trigonometry in programs. To meet this obvious and urgent need, the authors have prepared this book which can be used to follow any standard course in plane trigonometry. Most students now coming to the study of spherical trigonometry have little or no background in solid geometry. The authors have therefore taken care to develop those concepts of solid geometry which are essential to the understanding and practical mastery of spherical trigonometry. The treatment is sometimes intuitive and, wherever practicable, appropriately rigorous.
- FRICK, M. DE M. F., VIETTI, EDWARD, and THOMAS, C. A. *Talk and Take, Thomas Natural Shorthand*. Sec. edition. New York: Prentice-Hall. 1944. 112 pp. \$1.80. A workbook correlating with the *Thomas Natural Shorthand* text, it contains theory charts, word lists, reading and writing exercises. Instructions are specific, simple, and of sufficient detail to insure rapid and secure progress.
- GAER, JOSEPH. *Everybody's Weather*. Philadelphia: Lippincott Co. 1944. 96 pp. \$2.00. Readers of all ages will enjoy and learn weather ways from this simple pictorial presentation of an important and universally fascinating subject. Beautiful and dramatic photographs, and brief text make clear why weather is so important to all of us; the weather signs of clouds and winds every man, woman, and child can learn and depend upon; the work of the Government Weather Bureau in forecasting weather and protecting American citizens from the results of bad weather. This is a unique and delightful book, simple enough for young boys and girls, but interesting and informing for grown-ups, too. The sixty-eight beautiful photographs of weather signs and weather action were carefully selected from the immense collection of various United States agencies to supplement the text.
- HARKINS, PHILIP. *Bomber Pilot*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1944. 229 pp. \$2.00. This is the story of Aviation Cadet Al Hudson, who became Second Lieutenant Al Hudson, pilot of a Flying Fortress. It is also the story of his fellow cadets and what happened to some of them. But most of all it is the story of thousands of American

boys who went to camps like the one Al went to, and learned to fly, as he did, getting to know their planes and their fellow-members of the air forces, here and in England and over Germany.

- HUGHES, RILEY. *Our Coast Guard Academy*. New York: Devin-Adair Co. 1944. 213 pp. \$2.00. This is the first book to be written about the famous Coast Guard school at New London, which ranks with Annapolis and West Point. Few people know the Coast Guard's great traditions and span of history—that it is our oldest sea-going service; that the first commission President Washington issued to any sea-going officer was that to Hopley Yeaton, of the "Revenue Cutter Service" as the Coast Guard was first known.

The wide range of the functions of the Coast Guard even in peacetime makes it one of the most interesting of our Armed Forces. Maritime law-enforcement, life-saving, rescue work, servicing lighthouses, port policing, coast patrol and defense at sea and by air, prevention of smuggling, narcotic control, protection of fisheries, fur-seal, game and bird reservations, are some of these duties, to say nothing of wartime service, with the Coast Guard in the thick of it from Iceland to Guadalcanal. It contains thirty-three full pages in gravure.

- INMAN, S. G., and CASTANEDA, C. E. *A History of Latin America for Schools*. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1944. 442 pp. \$2.20. This textbook for courses in Latin-American relations shows the parallelism between the history of Latin-American countries and the history of the United States. It is organized for study in four large parts presenting some of the vital factors in the relations of Latin America with other nations, especially the United States; a background history of the countries of Latin America, including the struggle for democracy; the chief problems of Latin America—political, economic, and cultural—from an international point of view; and the artistic expression of Latin Americans—literature, music, and the fine arts. It provides motivation through interesting previews, thought-provoking questions, and informative activities. It emphasizes changed attitudes which are drawing the Americas into a solidarity, and discusses the implications of these changed attitudes for the future.

- JARRETT, E. M. *Sal y sabor de Mexico*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1944. 194 pp. \$1.48.

This book, written in simple Spanish, presents vividly the life of contemporary Mexico in a series of nine colorful essays on outstanding modern customs. Most of these essays are followed directly by short plays exemplifying those same customs in real-life situations, whose characters—ranging from the humble but courteous Indian vender to members of aristocratic best families—speak colloquial but simple Spanish of real practical value. Mexican wit and humor are portrayed in jokes from Mexican periodicals used in two of the plays, and throughout, the characters make much use of common gestures and appropriate proverbs in typical Latin fashion. The stories and plays are graded in difficulty and are intended for third- or fourth-semester's high-school use (or for the second-semester's work in colleges) while even in the fifth semester of high school they are suitable for quick supplementary reading for the sake of their cultural content and for practice in oral and aural skills which are increasingly important these days.

The subjunctive uses have been held to a minimum and translated in the footnotes wherever the meaning varies widely from the English, in order to make it possible for pupils to read for enjoyment, as well as because in their study of the subjunctive they may not yet have reached a certain usage essential to a story. The vocabulary content, with a total of about 1240 words and idioms, has, with the exception of essential plot and practical words, been held as closely as possible to the first 1500 words of Buchanan's *Graded Spanish Word Book* and to the first 200 idioms of Keniston's *Spanish Idiom List*.

- JORDAN, PASCUAL. *Physics of the 20th Century*. New York: Philosophical Library. 1944. 185 pp. \$4.00. One of the leading world authorities presents a survey and critical analysis of the theories in the world of physics today. The author directs the reader's attention toward the decisive facts and views, toward the guiding viewpoints of research and toward the enlistment of the spirit, which gives modern physics its particular philosophical character, and which made the achievement of its revolutionary perception possible. The book provides a clear and analytical picture of the growth of physics and its relation to cosmic and biological processes, from Galileo to the epoch-making theories of today.
- LEIPER, H. S. *Blind Spots*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1944. 146 pp. Cloth \$1.00, Paper 60c. This book is a record of experience. It represents some years of experimentation. It grows out of prolonged contacts with people of many races—in America. It is purely and simply an attempt to suggest ways of cultivating fair and brotherly personal attitudes. The ideals and ideas incorporated here represent the actual processes by which the author has seen men and women of differing races throughout America and in the lands overseas curing themselves of race prejudice, in the effort to make brotherhood real. The book grows out of a belief that something can be done about race prejudice, not only by society in general and by the church as an institution, but also by individual Christians in particular. The desirability of doing something about it is not argued here. It is taken for granted.
- LENSKI, LOIS. *Puritan Adventure*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1944. 224 pp. \$2.00. A vivid story of Puritans in a Massachusetts Bay Colony settlement and the exciting adventures of the Partridge family in particular. Life is never dull to young Seaborn, or to Comfort, his sister. Hunting wild turkeys with Know-God the Indian boy, encounters with bears and wolves, and rumors of Indian raids are everyday dramatic events.
- MEADER, S. W. *The Long Trains Roll*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1944. 259 pp. \$2.00. Not only an adventure story packed with thrills, this is also a book about railroads that will appeal to all railroad fans. Through Calico Gap, one of the passes to the West through the Appalachian wall, runs a four-track rail artery, an important military objective for enemy sabotage. Randy MacDougal, youngest son in a family of railroaders, stumbled on the clues leading to such an attempt, followed them through with the aid of the railroad detective and the FBI, and averted a catastrophe endangering war transportation. This vivid picture of train and track crews at work, talking railroad slang, carrying on in all weathers, shows them doing a war job just as surely as the men building the bombers and the guns.
- NOURSE, M. A., and GOETZ, DELIA. *China, Country of Contrasts*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1944. 229 pp. \$2.50. The purpose of this book is to give its readers an opportunity to become acquainted with China. Because this is so large a subject, the authors have chosen to present what might be called a panorama. But it is not the kind of panorama you see from an airplane. It is the sort of intimate picture you would gain from visiting the country yourself, not briefly, but stopping to visit with the people, observe them and their customs, watch them at work and play, learn something of their history, and most of all, learn what they are really like as human beings. It is a fascinating glimpse full of picturesque detail and real insight, and the value of the book is heightened by its absorbing interest.
- ORTON, H. F. *The Winding River*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1944. 239 pp. \$2.00. On a spring day in 1797, a thirteen-year old girl arrived in the city of Philadelphia on a ship from France. She had fled the terrors of the Revolution to seek safety in a strange and exciting new world. This book is the story of her adventures and her

romance at Azilum, the French settlement on the Susquehanna, in northern Pennsylvania, where a great log house had been built in readiness for Queen Marie Antoinette. This is a true and fascinating presentation of a little-known historic settlement—one of the most picturesque and significant of Colonial America. The reviewer has many times been on this spot and often thought of the history that was wrapped up in this low-lying strip of ground bound by the winding Susquehanna and the precipitous heights beyond. And now comes its history in printed form,—a cherished wish realized.

PAUST, GILBERT. *Here's How to Fly*. New York 16: Essential Books. 1944. 264 pp. From the first chapter on the history of aviation to the final set of authentic examination questions, this book is full of aviation material. It covers completely the elements of History, Aerodynamics, Navigation, Meteorology, Load Factors, and Aircraft Engines, presented in a simple, condensed, easily understandable form. The author avoids language that is too technical, and his informal style provides a shortcut through masses of textbook facts. The many questions in the back of the book are the multiple-choice type patterned after those used on government tests.

POWDERMAKER, HORTENSE. *Probing Our Prejudices*. New York 16: Harper and Bros. 1944. 73 pp. 65c. This book is an attempt to help high-school students become aware of their prejudices, to understand the nature, origin, and effect of prejudices, and to suggest activities which can help reduce them. It is obviously only one of several methods of attacking prejudice.

QUEENY, E. M. *The Spirit of Enterprise*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1943. 267 pp. \$2.00. Can America best play her part in the postwar world under the free enterprise system or under strong bureaucratic government control? The author, one of the country's leading industrialists, believes in the positive forthright discussion of questions which so vitally affect America's future. Believing that the case for free enterprise has been obscured during recent years, he states the case strongly, simply, and forcefully. The author does not deny that the system has allowed certain abuses. But he points to how these can and should be corrected. Moreover, he believes, and states his reasons why, the enormous contributions to civilization made possible by individual initiative operating under a free, competitive system cannot be duplicated in a bureaucracy.

SCHOEN, MAX. (Editor) *Enjoyment of the Arts*. New York: Philosophical Library. 1944. 336 pp. \$5.00. An authoritative and lively presentation of all major phases of the arts, prepared by a group of distinguished critics. The purpose of the book is to increase enjoyment by enriching understanding of the backgrounds of art. The fields dealt with are: painting, sculpture, architecture, industrial design, poetry, drama and theatre, the novel, the movies, music, and art criticism.

STARK, SUTHERLAND. *Chancho*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1944. 224 pp. \$2.00. Jose Antonio never had a pet until his father gave him a pig—a beautiful pink pig with a curlie of a tail—a rarity in San Sebastian, Peru. Father brought him home because he looked so lonely, and soon he was the pet of the whole household. They called him Chancho, and he could get into more mischief than any three animals.

But these were hard times and soon it became evident that with so many mouths to feed, and so little food available—Chancho would have to be sold! Heartbroken, Jose Antonio runs away with Chancho to Cuzco, where he hopes to find buried treasure to enrich the family, and save Chancho's life. Jose Antonio has many adventures in strange cities; he shares in the celebration in honor of the Lord of the Earthquakes; he finds a new friend; he searches for treasure. Finally, he finds a great surprise awaiting him at home. Here is a delightful story about an unusual pet and a beautiful South-American country.

STEWART, A. B. *Two Young Corsicans: A Boy and his Colt*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1944. 261 pp. \$2.00. Modern Corsica is the colorful setting for this appealing story of a boy and his great longing to ride and own a horse. Baptiste, fond of fun and freedom, was very proud when he was trusted with his father's sheep. He was prouder and happier still when, as the result of a good turn done to a stranger, he found himself owner of a little brown colt. But there were lessons he had to learn about a shepherd's faithfulness and the responsibility a boy took on when he owned a colt. The events of the story are exciting and satisfying and there is a very happy ending.

SUTTON, MARGARET. *Gail Gardner Wins Her Cap*. New York: Dodd, Mead, and Co. 1944. 243 pp. \$2.00. In this true-to-life story of U. S. Cadet Nurse Gail Gardner's struggle to win her cap, Mrs. Sutton, a "favorite" author of American girls—herself a trained Red Cross Nurses' Aide—has drawn on her own and her niece's hospital experiences. Gail's determination to become a nurse is exceeded only by her capacity for getting into difficulties. Refusing to be discouraged by her first failure, Gail sallies forth to the city to try again. She is finally accepted for training and begins an enthusiastic diary of her nursing experiences. Like most probies, she learns from her mistakes as well as her accomplishments. It does not take her long to find out that a good nurse must sometimes be a psychologist as well as a detective. Life at City Hospital is never dull.

TERHUNE, F. B. *Decorating for You*. New York: Silver Burdett Co. 1944. 284 pp. \$3.00. The school edition should prove of exceptional value and interest to the student of home decorating. It describes important styles of decoration, how to plan what to buy, making most of furniture arrangements, how to use color, what fabrics to choose, all about walls, selecting the right rug, slip covers, lamp light, hidden beauty, grace, finishing touches, and a look into the future. It is packed with interesting information and highlights and is effectively illustrated both by pictures and sketches.

TUNIS, J. R. *Yea! Wildcats!* New York 17: Harcourt, Brace, and Co. 1944. 257 pp. \$2.00. This is the story of the famous state basketball tournament in Indiana and how it affected one man—a basketball coach. Don Henderson, coach in a small town in central Indiana, was asked in mid-season to take charge of the Springfield Wildcats in a larger city. Out of a second-rate team he built up a basketball five that became a strong contender in the state finals in Indianapolis.

TYLER, K. S. *Modern Radio*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1944. 238 pp. \$2.50. In this scientific story of radio today, written by a construction engineer of the Columbia Broadcasting System, is the explanation of how radio actually works. Beginning in the studio where the program originates, each step from the original broadcast to the sound waves coming from your loudspeaker is explained. Any one interested in entering the radio field can learn here some of the principles of radio engineering and the duties of the men in the broadcasting studio, the control room, the transmitting station, and the television studio.

The book covers the latest developments in radio broadcasting, frequency modulation, television, and colored television. The fundamental operating principles of the latest types of microphones, radio tubes, transmitters, antennae, and receivers are explained. The newly developed colored television camera and receiver are described. Several chapters deal with the production of sound effects, studio design, and the most recent improvements in studio construction.¹

WALPOLE, E. W. *You Can Read Better*. New York: Silver Burdett Co. 1944. 288 pp. \$1.32. This book is a guide to skills that are necessary to good reading—something that every high-school student needs to improve. Its object is to show students what these necessary skills are, how to use them as part of their permanent study equipment. It is interestingly written in large attractive type and attractively illustrated and is effectively

presented through definite study-guidance directions and aids. Emphasis is placed on pronunciation, word meaning, and interpretation.

WESTON, M. F. *The Great Pathfinder*. New York 3: Robert M. McBride. 1944. 212 pp. \$2.00. Boy readers looking for a new American hero will find him in this book. It tells the exciting story of the life and adventures of Jedediah Smith, one of our greatest explorers, whose discoveries link his name with those of Lewis and Clark. Smith, the best of the "Mountain Men" and before he was thirty, had explored twice as much territory as Lewis and Clark, blazing not one but two trails from the Missouri to the Pacific. He differs from the illiterate hunters and trappers of the early nineteenth century. Smith was an educated man—but he hankered for excitement, not books.

WHITMORE, IROL, and WANOUS, S. J. *Shorthand Transcription Studies*. Cincinnati 2: South-Western Publishing Co. 1944. 256 pp. \$1.76. This is a new type of book which has been carefully developed to fill a long-standing demand. It is designed for a final course that will develop job competence for stenographers. Its organization is such that the material, while especially designed for a course in transcription, can be adapted for use in courses in advanced typewriting, advanced shorthand, office practice, or in integrated office-training programs. Furthermore, the material is so arranged that it can be used with equal effectiveness for the single or the double period. The assignment problems at the end of each lesson can be used for homework or can be used as class activity.

WILSON, H. R. *Songs of the Hills and Plains*. Chicago: Hall and McCreary Co. 1944. 64 pp. 60c. Selected primarily for their singability and present-day usefulness in the classroom, the home, and the camp, many of these favorite songs of the American pioneers, mountaineers, and cowboys are equally suitable for choral groups, both amateur and professional. To the melodies have been added occasional parts, descants, and colorful but easy piano accompaniments which retain the flavor of the early versions and at the same time give adequate support to the singers. There are specific suggestions for singing the songs and for dramatizing some of them. Another valuable feature of the book is a group of play-party songs with directions for dances.

WOOD, L. N. *Raymond L. Ditmars, His Exciting Career with Reptiles, Animals, and Insects*. New York: Julian Messner. 1944. 272 pp. \$2.50. The name of Raymond L. Ditmars is synonymous with adventure and needs no introduction to anyone with a more than average interest in natural history. To those however, who have not been fortunate enough to know much about Ditmars, one of the foremost herpetologists (student of reptiles) in the world, his biography will be a revelation and an exciting experience. Raymond Ditmars' story is a combination of scientific research, travel, adventure—but above all, it is the very human account of an American boy who turned a hobby into a profession which he pursued through all the years of his life. Young people and adults too, will chuckle over many of the early chapters in which the author shows Raymond Ditmars as a likeable boy, quietly doing his expected tasks, while his pockets bulged with insects, frogs, snakes—the only issue that ever developed between him and his parents who despaired of his ever settling down to some worth-while profession.

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